

LIBRARIANSHIP

by

J. PERIAM DANTON

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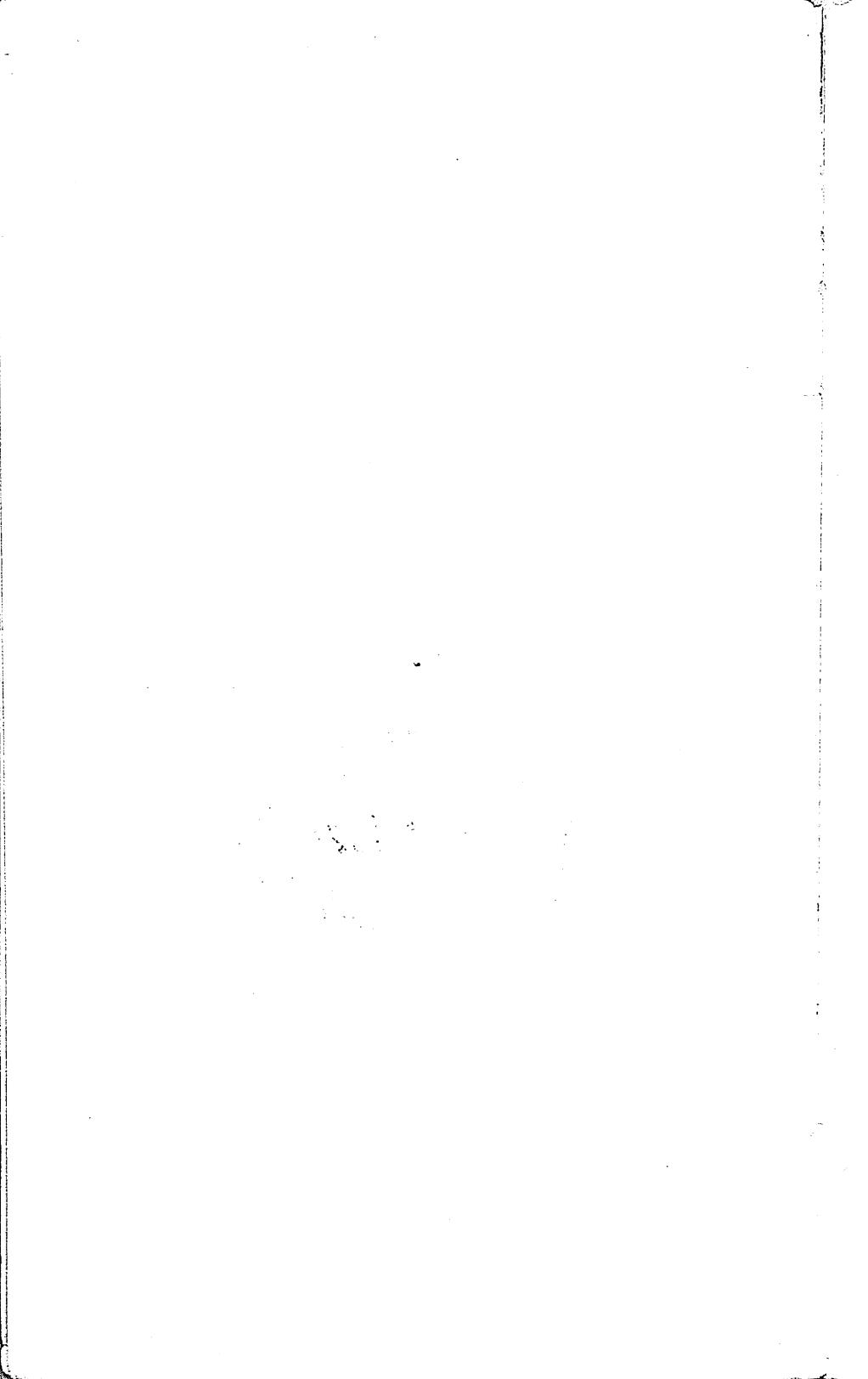
Accession Number 12461

Class Number 620.7

Book Number D 236 E

Vol. Cop. Date 18/5/57

UNESCO PUBLIC LIBRARY MANUALS
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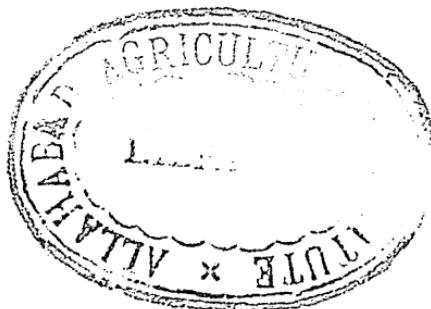


EDUCATION FOR LIBRARIANSHIP

by

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UNESCO

1949

*Published by
United Nations Educational
Scientific and Cultural Organization
Printed in France
by Typographie Firmin-Didot et Cie.
Mesnil (Eure), 1949*

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Unesco Publication 388.*

Unesco has a special responsibility for the development of those educational, scientific and cultural services which help to bridge the gap between the specialists and the ordinary citizens of the world. There is always a danger that in any period when great advancements are being made in science and learning the intellectuals may be out of touch with the people ignorant of what their cultural leaders are doing. Of the many types of service which civilized man has designed to bridge this gap there are few which have such wide possibilities and such need for development as the various services contributed by public libraries. No one who has learned to read beyond the level of bare literacy and who wishes to play his full part in the life of his community can possibly keep in touch with what is happening elsewhere in the world, with what, even, is happening at his doorstep, without recourse to books and periodicals, but few people in the world can buy all the books they need for their own personal use. Therefore Unesco cannot hesitate to do all in its power to see that there are more public libraries and that wherever they exist they are as good as possible. Public libraries in their simplest function exist as storehouses of knowledge and of experience which are freely open to people of every class, race, religion and age, but in recent years public libraries, wherever they have been well developed, have accepted far wider responsibilities than those of passive storehouses. They have an active part to play in adult education, making use of new techniques of communication, such as radio, films, discussion groups and exhibitions, so that the people who use libraries may be helped to read wisely and well and may be led to pay critical attention to the significant problems of their place and time.

At present it is unfortunately true that there are few countries in the world where the full possibilities of public library work are understood and there are many parts of the world where public library services can as yet be hardly said to exist. These facts are well understood by Unesco and, therefore, following a successful summer school for public librarians which was held in England in 1948, we have undertaken the

publication of a series of manuals to make the best possible experience in public library work widely known throughout the world. These manuals, of which four are being published in 1949, will deal with some of the fundamental questions of library work:—training for librarianship, the rôle of the library in adult education and the extension of public-library activity to meet the needs of scattered and rural populations and special groups in the community.

They have been written by librarians principally for librarians, because the professional workers in librarianship must carry the chief responsibility for the development of their services, but they have not been written so as to be exclusively of interest to librarians. Indeed, it is my hope that they will be read by government officials, educators and others with a responsibility for the provision of public library services and for the professional training of librarians. Public library progress depends largely upon the competence and vision of librarians, but substantial results can be obtained only if the librarians receive the support of the educational authorities and the legislative and financial authorities of their countries.

The authors of these manuals write freely as individuals expressing their own opinions. They have consulted the papers produced at the International Summer School and have received advice from Unesco, but not with the object of laying down Unesco rules for public librarianship. Certain principles of library service undoubtedly appear which may be universally acceptable, but, as several of the authors have pointed out, a living library service will be so closely keyed to the social, cultural and economic conditions of its region that there must be widely differing interpretations in practice. All this has been taken into account.

These manuals are practical demonstrations of international co-operation. They convey the authoritative opinions and good experience of a number of leading librarians to their colleagues and those who are concerned with the development of popular education and the growth of international understanding widely throughout the world.

JAIME TORRES BODET,
Director-General.

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CHAPTER I

BACKGROUND; THE MODERN LIBRARY; THE LIBRARIAN

AT A VERY EARLY DATE man began to record in graphic form the results of his observations and experiences. At least 20,000 to 30,000 years ago—and perhaps considerably earlier—Old Stone Age men depicted on the cave walls of the hills of Dordogne, France and the Pyrenean grottos of Spain many aspects of the life which surrounded them. As our ancestors, some fifteen millennia later, developed written language and discovered more and more convenient media for recording their history, it was natural that they should begin to collect and preserve the records they had made. Such collections, probably first assembled by priests in their temples and kings in their palaces, certainly date back at least to the twenty-fifth century B. C.; they may properly be called the progenitors of libraries.

As culture succeeded culture and civilization followed civilization, the total volume of the record of man's history steadily grew and so, too, for the most part, did the number and size of the collections—or libraries—which man made to preserve that record. Such accumulations—whether of clay tablets, papyrus sheets, or parchment rolls or volumes—consequently existed in impressive size and number before the development of paper and long before the invention of printing from movable type in Europe in the fifteenth century. Those two great milestones, the one providing a cheaper and handier medium for setting down knowledge, the other making possible multiple and more rapid and cheaper reproduction of a text, vastly increased the number of materials which had to be dealt with. Schemes for the efficient acquisition, cataloging, classification and servicing of those materials became necessary and have been steadily developed and refined during the past few hundred years.

In spite of the long history of the written record, libraries and librarianship as we know them today date only from the last century. It was not, indeed, until 1887 that the first school, specifically set up for the education of librarians, was founded at Columbia College

(now Columbia University) in New York City. The reasons for special schools of this sort, now found in one form or another throughout most parts of the civilized world, are easy to determine. The tremendous increase in the output of the world's printing-presses made, and continues to make, increasingly complex and difficult the mere task of collecting, arranging, and disseminating; the rapid development in the nineteenth century of many new fields of knowledge; the almost universal rise in the general educational level of the people; and the spread in many quarters of the globe of the idea and the ideals of democracy changed the older concept of a library as a place primarily for the protection and preservation of books for the few to one of an educational storehouse of knowledge, guidance and inspiration for the many. The man who was to implement this modern idea of librarianship needed a great deal more education and technical knowledge of many sorts than did his predecessor, and the library world discovered, as law, medicine, and other professions had discovered, that the necessary education could be more easily, efficiently, comprehensively and cheaply acquired through formal schooling than it could, for example, by means of an apprentice system. The experience of the past sixty years has demonstrated the validity of this belief in unmistakable fashion and it is today a fair generalization to say that any modern library which is to be operated as something more than a mere collection of books, preserved museum-wise, will require a professional and formally trained personnel.

POTENTIALITIES OF THE MODERN LIBRARY

The potentialities of a country's libraries—particularly of its free public libraries—are, from the point of view of educational and sociological significance to the people, second only perhaps to the system of formal schooling. There is no segment of the population, whether considered by age, religion, occupation, personal interests, sex, political belief, or social or economic level, which the library cannot and should not reach; in this respect, at least, the potentialities of the library are second to those of no other social institution in the structure of society. The child, the youth, and the adult; the laborer, the business man, and the savant; the rich and the poor; the devout and the disbeliever; the liberal and the conservative—all these may be expected to seek and to find in the free library information, education, guidance and recreation.

There are few people who would not agree that one of the greatest problems—very likely *the* greatest problem—which mankind faces today is that of finding the means to create and to insure a stable, peaceful world. We can hardly expect to achieve this goal unless we bring about international understanding. This means that people everywhere must be given an opportunity to become intelligently informed about other countries and about the great social, economic, and political questions and problems of our times. The modern library, adequately staffed and stocked, is in a unique position to make a vital contribution to this great cause, for nowhere else can the citizen expect to find full and impartial information. The rôle and value of the library assume, thus, a peculiar significance in the world today.

This general function and obligation of the library have been admirably expressed by a former president of the International Federation of Library Associations in these words :

“L'une des conceptions, celle même qui a donné naissance à la bibliothèque publique moderne, voit dans la bibliothèque un lieu de libre recherche, un foyer de culture individuelle, une possibilité pour chacun de se former, par examen personnel et impartiale comparaison, un jugement indépendant; bref, un facteur de liberté.”¹

Just what is the sphere of operation of the modern library and its professional staff? Perhaps no better general answer to this question can be given than to quote the following statement which, *mutatis mutandis*, applies to all libraries everywhere :

“Librarians are chiefly concerned with making printed matter of all types (books, periodicals, pamphlets, maps, legislative reports, and historical documents) readily available for the use of students, research workers, legislators, Government officials, and the public generally. They investigate the reading interests and demands of the people served by the library, and adjust the services of the library to suit the needs of its community. They publicize the library services by means of bulletins, bibliographies, and newspaper stories. They select and purchase books and other materials; use established methods for classifying, cataloging, shelving, and circulating books; and assist readers to find books and information best suited to their individual interests. They help children and young people in or out of school to broaden their acquaintance with books and to acquire a taste for reading. They give special service to adults as to which books may entertain them or give them desired information. They

1. Marcel Godet, “Discours d’ouverture”, in *Actes du Comité International des Bibliothèques*. 12^e session, La Haye-Amsterdam, 10-12 juillet 1939. (International Federation of Library Associations, “Publication,” vol. XI.) La Haye, Nijhoff, 1940, p. 12-13.

assist school systems in setting up elementary and advanced classes in cultural subjects, and foster reading and discussion groups for adults who wish to continue their education. In addition, they co-ordinate the work of the library with that of other departments in a school, university, or research organization, or with other agencies of a city, county, State, or the Federal Government.”²

It is this virtually limitless potentiality of the modern library which lays such an obligation upon those who are charged with responsibility for the educational welfare of the people. If that responsibility is to be fully met, there must be good free libraries, and “good” means, not merely adequate collections of books of all sorts but also, and equally, staffs competently educated and trained to administer and service them. That this responsibility has not been fully met may be easily demonstrated. In the United States, for example, the staffs of nearly 11,500 libraries (exclusive of school libraries) serving a total population of about 148,000,000 must come from 34 accredited library schools which are today graduating only some 1,200 librarians a year. On the average, only one library in ten would get a new staff member each year. The number is obviously too small and has been so for a decade. The result is that librarianship in the United States is faced with a shortage of something like 10,000 librarians.³ More librarians are needed in Great Britain and the countries of Western Europe. A great increase in the number of librarians is desperately needed in China.⁴ And Dr. S. R. Ranganathan estimates that about 120,000 librarians will be needed to serve an adequate library system for independent India!⁵ It is obvious that more librarians are required almost everywhere and that, in view of the potentialities of our libraries,

“Competent staffs are... needed if [the] libraries are to be administered on a sound basis. The older, larger, and more complex a library is, the more difficult are the decisions that must be made and the more serious a mistake can be. Consequently, librarians of ever greater competence are required if such libraries are to avoid making mistakes and are to be held on an even keel, let alone to be enabled to chart their course in new areas of usefulness. Unfortunately, there are more libraries than one would like to see in a run-

2. U. S. National Roster of Scientific and Specialized Personnel, *The Job of the Librarian*, Washington, U. S. Government Printing Office, 1945. (Occupational Brief, no 29), p. 1-2.

3. American Library Association. Joint Committee on Library Work as a Career. “10,000 Careers with a Challenge.” Chicago, American Library Association, 1948, p. 3.

4. Charles B. Shaw, *The Libraries of the Christian Colleges of China*, A report of a survey made in 1947-8. New York, United Board of Christian Colleges in China, 1948, p. 81 (mimeographed).

5. *Indian Librarian*, vol. III, June 1948, p. 6-7.

down condition that can be directly attributed to a failure of personnel.”⁶

The competence referred to normally requires, among other things, education in a library school, and it is the purpose of this pamphlet to consider the principal factors and elements relating to the creation, objectives, curriculum, faculty, students, administration and facilities of such schools.

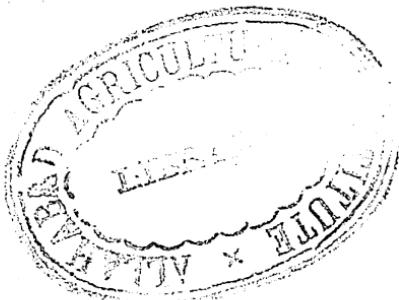
THE LIBRARIAN

At the outset it is important to draw a distinction between the professionally educated and trained librarian on the one hand, and other kinds of persons who work in libraries on the other. In this second category may be mentioned “pages,” clerks, stenographers and secretaries of many kinds, book repairers and other persons who perform tasks of a clerical or routine nature. All of these are indispensable for the proper and efficient operation of a modern library—but they are not librarians. The discussion throughout this work is limited to education for *librarianship*—that is, to questions centered around the preparation of men and women who will be competent to carry on the complex and frequently highly complicated bibliographical and professional tasks connected with the ordering, cataloging, classification, dissemination, and general administration of the book collections of a modern library.

An additional aspect of the question of professional librarianship deserves underscoring here. Faced with the difficult problem of finding a director for a library—and desirous of bestowing prestige upon the institution—appointing authorities have sometimes resorted to the expedient of selecting a leading writer, literary historian or other scholar for the post. This practice cannot be too strongly condemned when the individual concerned is without familiarity with modern librarianship and is not in any sense a librarian. Librarianship today, as the discussion to this point has attempted to show, is a highly complex profession requiring specific and detailed knowledge of many kinds—personnel, financial, bibliographical and bibliothecal. The complicated services which a modern library renders do not organize and run themselves, but must be organized and operated; they must be modified, improved and extended in

6. Andrew D. Osborn, “Education for Librarianship,” in Lowell Martin (ed.) *Personnel Administration in Libraries*. Chicago, University of Chicago Press, [c. 1946], p. 121.

the light of changing conditions. This can be done only by one who knows the objectives and potentialities of the library, the techniques, tools and means for achieving them, and the purposes and limitations of the means. The head of a library must, in short, be thoroughly familiar with all phases of modern librarianship. No matter how successful and illustrious a writer or scholar may be in his own field, he is not, without this knowledge, qualified to direct a library and he cannot be expected to do so successfully.



CHAPTER II

THE LIBRARY SCHOOL—CREATION AND OBJECTIVES

CREATION

IN THOSE COUNTRIES which have had the longest history of education for librarianship and have progressed furthest, experience has demonstrated two major preliminary requirements in connection with the establishment of library schools. The first of these is that a school should have a close relationship with, and preferably should be an integral part of, an established institution of higher education; the second is that a school should be located in close proximity to a number of good libraries of different sorts. Each of these considerations deserves some amplification.

In the earliest days of education for librarianship in the United States a number of schools were founded entirely independent of any institution of higher education. The disadvantages of this procedure soon became evident.¹ For one thing, the bibliographical apparatus—reference works, bibliographies and catalogs—to which a library school student must have access is likely to be beyond the financial means of the independent school, whereas it will already exist as a part of the library of an educational institution. Even where adequate funds are available a really good collection of such tools is difficult to build up since many of them are out of print and scarce. In the second place, the wholly independent institution is frequently not empowered to award a degree to its students; consequently, after completion of the course they may lack any sort of official certification of that fact and will, therefore, be at some disadvantage when compared with persons who have been graduated from a recognized institution of higher education. In the third place, there is danger that instructional and other standards in an independent institution may be lower than in one which is a part of a recognized university. More important, probably, than any of these three disadvantages is the fact that the independent school

r. The big impetus to university-located schools resulted principally from the report by C. C. Williamson, *Training for Library Service...* New York, Carnegie Corporation, 1923. Cf. especially, p. 142.

will necessarily be somewhat removed, intellectually, from other educational establishments. To put the point positively, a school of librarianship must, by its very nature, be concerned with subjects other than technical librarianship; it cannot stand apart from interests and developments in such fields as literature, economics, sociology, political science, history and bibliography. If the school is associated with a university, its faculty and students have the opportunity to call upon the knowledge of men in other departments in the institution; teaching and study in the school may be expected to be invigorated, strengthened and kept fresh through contacts with thought in other fields of learning. This desideratum is difficult to realize in an independent school.

The argument need not be labored but may be made specific by a single example and statement which suggest, also, an additional, related advantage. Speaking of the Graduate Library School of the University of Chicago, its then Dean pointed out that :

"By virtue of its membership in the University, it has been able to help the library profession to identify its work with that of other fields and to increase the understanding of workers in these fields of the principles and problems of librarianship in general. The school's university grounding has given it a platform from which it can present the larger purposes of librarianship more effectively to scholars and to the general public than it could if its contacts and relations were strictly limited to the library field." ²

Few generalizations are universally true and applicable. In some countries, for political, financial or other reasons, the universities are less stable, less well-equipped, and have lower standards and prestige than many other educational institutions independently operated. This is perhaps notably the case where universities are not governmental agencies. In such situations it may actually be better for a new library school to be connected at the beginning with a great library of outstanding reputation, particularly if the library is a governmental one. The first three of the arguments noted above against non-university affiliated library schools would then presum-

2. Louis R. Wilson, "The Objectives of the Graduate Library School in Extending the Frontiers of Librarianship," in Association of American Library Schools and Board of Education for Librarianship of the American Library Association, *New Frontiers in Librarianship*. Chicago, University of Chicago, Graduate Library School, 1940, p. 16.

In spite of the compelling arguments in favor of university-located library schools, schools continue to be organized with non-university affiliation. The seven schools begun in Great Britain since World War II are, for example, not attached to universities, but they have come in for criticism on that account. Cf. an article by Anthony Thompson, "The Building-up of a Library School, 1939-1944," in *The Library Association Record*, vol. L, May 1948, p. 126.

ably be inoperative. But, to repeat, where a strong, stable, high-standard university exists, this seems certainly the best location for a library school.

The reasons for locating a library school near a number of good libraries of different kinds are equally cogent. Most persuasive is the fact that the library school student should have an opportunity to observe and analyse at first hand the actual operations of different kinds of libraries, and he should be able to do so without undue expenditure of time and effort. Some time during his professional course the student should also be given an opportunity to work in a library. This will also be facilitated if the school is located near good libraries in which case, too, the faculty and administration of the school are likely to have a better idea of the quality and practices of the institutions in which its students are working. Two other considerations may be mentioned: libraries are a natural recruiting source for library schools, and if a school is located near a number of good libraries and maintains close relations with them, it should expect to receive from them a steady stream of prospective students. Some of these, in turn, when they have completed their professional education will normally find employment opportunities in the local libraries.

Certain basic steps will be involved in the creation of a new library school even though the details of its creation will necessarily differ from country to country as educational systems and social, economic, and other conditions differ. These steps are presented herewith chiefly from the point of view of the establishment of a school in a country now without professional training for librarians.³

i. A primary requirement, and probably an indispensable prerequisite to success is the existence, or the development, of enthusiasm for the idea on the part of at least some librarians of the country. If the librarians themselves are not interested it is unlikely that others, less immediately concerned, will be prompted to take the initiative or will be induced to lend the moral and material support which any such enterprise requires. The most logical agency for preliminary promotion of the project would be the national library association if one exists or, failing that, some local association or more informal group of librarians. A committee representative of different kinds of libraries, different kinds of library work and different parts

3. The Libraries Division of Unesco (19, Avenue Kléber, Paris 16) is glad to assist in the establishment of new library schools and may be called upon for information, advice and co-operation.

of the country, should be appointed, elected, or otherwise brought into being. If there is no library association whatever, a small but similarly representative group of leading librarians should form themselves into a committee for the purpose. This committee should include in its membership librarians whose careers and positions give them some prestige and influence at least locally and, if possible, nationally.

2. The first function of this committee would be to draw up a plan for the proposed school. This plan should be carefully documented and should show specifically the need for trained librarians and the potentialities of the school and of librarianship. This can be done through reference to statistics on the number of existing libraries, number of staff, personnel needs, (lack of) training of staff, and library services present and potential. Such statistics may profitably be compared with corresponding figures for other countries where schools are already functioning. Even in its earliest stages, the plan should pay some attention also to the proposed curriculum (see Chap. III), the number and qualifications of faculty needed (see Chap. IV), probable requirements of space and facilities (see Chap. VI), and an estimate of costs (see Chap. VII). As the plan is further developed, more precise statements on these topics should be drawn up.

3. Assuming that there is more than one strong university in the country, the most progressive, best staffed, and best supported one, located near large libraries (if they exist) should be selected as first choice for location of the proposed school.

4. The moral backing, including statements and testimonials, of presidents and directors of important state or private educational institutions, research institutes, and other intellectual and cultural enterprises of various kinds should be solicited. To secure this kind of support will probably require a great deal of work and discussion on the part of the members of the librarians' committee but such support should go far toward insuring eventual approval of the project and may be indispensable to such approval.

5. Support of the president of the university for the basic idea must now be sought through presentation and discussion of the proposed plan. In many countries the backing of the minister of education and perhaps of other key governmental officials will need to be obtained similarly and more or less concurrently.

6. Not less difficult than the foregoing will be the question of securing the necessary funds. It is possible that these may be provided by the national government, through the ministry of education

or otherwise, or by the university itself or by both. But it is also possible that the officials concerned here, while admitting the value of the project, accepting the idea of a library school in principle and willing to sponsor it and give it other kinds of support, may be unable to supply the required money. If this is the case, the committee of librarians faces a difficult problem. It will be necessary to approach, with such backing and testimonial as have been secured, philanthropic organizations and individuals in the country, foundations abroad, and every other possible source. It may be that part of the necessary funds can be secured from each of several agencies.

7. Selection of a director for the school. The desirable qualifications of this official are suggested in Chapter iv. He must be a person thoroughly familiar with the aims, functions, methods and practices of modern libraries in the countries with the highest library development. However, in the case of an entirely new school in a country now without library training agencies of any kind, a wholly qualified individual may not be available. In such a circumstance, two alternatives are possible. One would be to select one of the country's most able and progressive young librarians for a year or two of study abroad. If money for the purpose is not available within the country, a fellowship or scholarship might be obtained. *Study abroad*,⁴ published by Unesco, lists fellowships, scholarships and educational exchange possibilities in various fields, including librarianship. These opportunities for study are offered by the French Government, the International Federation of University Women, the British Council and other bodies. In the United States certain foundations, such as the Carnegie Corporation of New York and the Rockefeller Foundation, have in the past provided fellowships for librarians. Financial assistance for study in the field of librarianship is also available under the terms of the Mundt-Smith Act and the Fulbright Act. The latter provides for the payment of transportation expenses for citizens of certain countries for attendance at institutions of higher education in the United States. Unesco itself has made awards to librarians of certain war-devastated Member States. The second alternative would be to secure a well-qualified librarian from abroad to direct the school for the first few years. This alternative would probably provide a more broadly experienced person and might also, in some cases, be a less expensive solution; its disadvantage is that any such person

4. Unesco. *Study Abroad; International Handbook; Fellowships, Scholarships, Educational Exchange*. Paris, Unesco, 1948.
Vol. 1, 1948, and a 1949 supplement have been issued.

would probably not be intimately familiar with the library needs and practices and other local conditions of a country not his own. If a non-national must be secured to direct the school for the first year or two of its existence, every effort should be made to secure a person who has had at least some experience in the country, who has some personal knowledge of its libraries and of conditions in the country generally, and who has familiarity with the language. The use of a non-national, wholly without experience and knowledge of this kind, will create major problems and will almost certainly militate against the success of the school.

8. Other members of the faculty. The selection, qualifications and other matters related to faculty are considered in Chapter IV. It should be pointed out here, however, in connection with the plans for the creation of a new library school in a country now wholly without library training agencies, that qualified prospective faculty members may not be available in the country. If that is the case provision would have to be made, as for the director of the school, for training abroad. The same considerations and possibilities apply as are suggested in the preceding paragraph. Where study abroad, either with or without fellowship aid, is not feasible it may be possible to secure qualified librarians from other countries to serve as faculty members for the first year or two of the school's existence. If this, too, is impracticable the only alternative is to select the most nearly qualified persons available and for the director then to bring his staff to the highest possible standard through unusually close supervision and constant guidance and instruction.

OBJECTIVES OF A LIBRARY SCHOOL

It is obvious that the aims, purposes, and objectives of a school will be in very considerable measure dependent upon the kinds of libraries and librarianship for which personnel is to be prepared. "Kinds" in this sense has to do both with the nature of the libraries and with the work performed in and services rendered by them. In a small country, or in one with relatively few libraries and therefore probably with few or perhaps even no library schools, a new school may well have a national objective; in a larger country, or one with many libraries and perhaps already existing library schools, a regional objective may be quite appropriate. In either case the school must look to the needs of the institutions which will employ its graduates and

must determine what sorts of professional work are being performed in the libraries and what kinds of education and training will best equip its students to carry on those tasks. If a school does not satisfactorily answer these two questions, it can hardly expect to produce librarians who will be acceptable to prospective employers. And in that case the school will not long have any students at all.

While the pertinency of the foregoing arguments can hardly be disputed, there is a second somewhat antithetical consideration which must be borne in mind. It relates to the primary purpose of a university and hence to the primary purpose of the constituent parts of such an institution. This consideration is offered on the assumption that a library school is probably most happily and advantageously situated if it is an actual part of a university. But the argument loses little of its force no matter how or where such a school may be located, since a true professional school inevitably has certain purposes in common with a university. One such purpose is that a university—or a true professional school—should in some measure, at least, be a center of independent thought. One might even argue that the primary emphasis of an advanced educational institution of the sort being discussed should be upon independent thought and the research which results from it. A university or a professional school must contribute toward the solution of problems and to the gathering, analysis and interpretation of facts; in short, it must advance knowledge and teach others to advance knowledge if it is wholly to justify its existence.

This means then, or leads to the concept that a library school cannot direct its energies exclusively to traditional, current library needs and practices; it must in addition propose the new, investigate the old, re-examine the accepted, experiment with the untried, and in sum serve as a leader in its field. This concept of the rôle of the library school is well stated in the following :

"[There is a] necessity for overcoming a traditional psychological handicap under which library schools have labored; namely, that library schools have usually in the past followed the lead of libraries and have rarely struck out on their own in guiding the development of libraries. Such a subservient relationship of the training agencies of the profession to the practitioners is not found in the older professions, such as law, where the content of the field is more nearly stable than it is in librarianship." ⁵

5. Herbert Goldhor, "Some Thoughts on the Curriculum of Library Schools," *School and Society*, vol. LXVII, June 12, 1948, p. 436.

Unless library schools in some measure assume a rôle of leadership, we can hardly expect more than maintenance of the *status quo* and a static condition in librarianship; if progress and improvement are to be achieved they will come to a considerable degree from leadership exercised by the schools which must then be at least a step ahead of the libraries for which they prepare staff members.

CHAPTER III

CURRICULUM AND METHODS OF INSTRUCTION

CURRICULUM

THE VIEWPOINT TAKEN in the comments under this section presupposes that the library school student has completed his formal, pre-professional education and that, academically speaking, it is on the basis of that education, whether determined by diplomas, degrees, or examination, that he is admitted to library school. This means that the student comes to the school with what is believed to be an adequate knowledge of languages, literature, the other humanities, the social sciences, and the natural sciences. It is as a consequence then assumed that the curriculum of the library school does not embrace such subjects as these but is limited to those of librarianship.¹ Even if these assumptions are not wholly valid and the library school must have or wishes to have some hand in the direction of the student's non-professional education, what follows is not nullified; the point is simply that discussion of the library school "curriculum" is here limited to areas of knowledge in the field of librarianship itself.

From what has been said thus far the over-all objectives of a library school curriculum may be deduced. They are to acquaint the student with :

1. The graphic record and its contribution to civilization.
2. The rôle which libraries have played and play in the social structure.
3. A knowledge of the principles upon which libraries are organized and operated.
4. The methods and techniques whereby libraries carry on their functions and achieve their purposes.
5. Professional ideals, understanding and standards and thereby to contribute to the advancement of librarianship.

1. It is to be noted, however, that in some schools throughout the world—for example, the Graduate Library School of the University of Chicago and the National School for Librarians in Mexico City—certain elements of cultural, non-professional education are given concurrently with the program in librarianship proper. The important consideration is that the prospective librarian be an educated person, not *when* or *how* he becomes so.

As the objectives of a particular library school must in large measure be dependent upon the nature and needs of the libraries it is to serve, so too will the school's curriculum be derived from its objectives. Yet, while admitting this broad generalization, there are some curricular elements which, because of certain purposes and functions common to all libraries, can be said to be necessary components of the program of any library school. These components derive from the three fundamentals of librarianship : books and other graphic records; readers; and the organization, means and devices which bring books and readers together. All libraries select and order books and other printed materials, catalog and classify them, and offer reference and bibliographic service to their patrons; all libraries require organization and administration for efficient service. Any library, in addition, must be concerned with the reading interests, habits and needs of its clientele—even though the clientele, and therefore its reading, may differ widely from library to library. This much, then, we can lay down as a probable indispensable minimum or "core" curriculum which must be embraced by any library school; present-day schools—whether in Belgium, Brazil, Canada, Ecuador, England, France, Italy, Mexico, Scotland, the United States or Uruguay—tend pretty generally to offer basic curricula in these areas, although only the first four can be said to be virtually universal :

1. Cataloging and Classification.
2. Bibliography and Reference Materials.
3. Book Buying and Book Selection.
4. Library Organization and Administration.
5. Reading Needs, Interests, Habits.

It may be worth noting that the Regional Library Congress in Montevideo, Uruguay, in November 1946, considering librarianship in a part of the world where schools are relatively few and undeveloped, endorsed a minimum course of study covering (1), (2) and (4) of the above.² In addition, a "General Introduction to Library Science" and "History of Books and Libraries," both discussed below, were included.

The precise nature of each of the foregoing five curricular offerings, and the emphasis and the amount of time to be given to them will depend upon a number of local conditions, centered, again, chiefly about the nature and needs of the libraries which the school

². As quoted in Arthur E. Gropp, "Education for Librarianship in the Americas," *Library Quarterly*, vol. XVIII, April 1948, p. 116.

serves. Absolute generalization in these respects is therefore difficult, but some amplification is possible and desirable.

CATALOGING AND CLASSIFICATION. Cataloging and classification are the twin keystones of library organization, for without them efficiency in book selection, reference work, reader guidance and the dissemination of materials is impossible. The library school student should be made familiar with the history and theories of classification in general and library classification in particular, with the purposes library cataloging and classification are intended to serve, with the advantages and disadvantages of different classification schemes, and with the detailed application of the scheme or schemes most commonly used by the libraries in the school's orbit (*e. g.*, in Bogota and Lima the Dewey Decimal Classification is the official system for the national libraries). The student should also be made familiar with the principles of catalog entry, methods of descriptive cataloging and of subject cataloging. He should acquire some knowledge of the organization and total processes of a catalog department and of problems of recataloging and reclassification. It is probably fair to say that in general approximately one-quarter of total instructional time should be devoted to the subjects of cataloging and classification.

BIBLIOGRAPHY AND REFERENCE MATERIALS. Whether this equally indispensable subject in the curriculum is treated as a single whole, covering all fields of knowledge, or whether, as some schools in the United States are now doing, it is divided into large areas of human knowledge—humanities, sciences and social sciences—treated separately, probably makes little difference and is, in any case, a question which each school must decide for itself.

But no matter how the instruction in bibliography, reference and other book materials is organized and handled, it is highly desirable that it not be presented to the student in such a way as to create in his mind the idea of "separateness" of reference works from other books for, as one authority has pointed out, "Such a distinction emphasizes too much the uses of materials, and hence may obscure sounder canons of classification. Besides bearing the marks of an expedient, it is becoming less and less useful to practitioners."³

The most important consideration, however, is that the student

3. Ernest J. Reece, *Programs for Library Schools*. New York, Columbia University Press, 1943, p. 35.

acquire an understanding of the purpose and function of reference work, some knowledge of the organization and building up of reference collections, and an acquaintance with basic reference materials. This acquaintance must include the principal American, British, European and Latin American periodical and newspaper indexes and union lists; a similar coverage of the main general encyclopedias and dictionaries; the major encyclopedias, bibliographies, handbooks, indexes, etc., in the chief fields of learning such as history, political science, education, the sciences, fine arts, language, and literature; government publications; national and trade bibliography. In this last highly important category, belong the great national catalogs such as those of the British Museum, the Library of Congress, the Biblioteca nacional, Mexico, and the Bibliothèque Nationale, and the German bibliographies of Heinsius, Hinrichs, and Kayser. Here also fall the trade bibliographies, existing for many countries, listing the current output of the country's presses : *Bibliografía General Española...* *Bibliographie de Belgique*, *Bibliographie de la France*, *Bibliotheca Hispana*, *Deutsche Nationalbibliographie*, the *Catalogo dei Cataloghi del Libro Italiano*, the *English Catalogue...*, the *United States Catalog*, etc. Something like a quarter of total instructional time may well be given over to this part of the curriculum.

BOOK BUYING AND BOOK SELECTION. This subject covers the theories, principles, and practice of selecting books and other materials for libraries in the light of the needs of the library's community, the bibliographical tools necessary for selection, the methods and techniques whereby books, etc., are acquired, sources for the acquisition of different sorts of materials, and media and methods of evaluation. Problems of censorship, of gifts and exchanges, and of weeding library collections are pertinent here. All these topics need not necessarily be the subject of a separate course or courses but may be incorporated into general subject-area book courses—covering the humanities, social sciences, and sciences—which would treat of these matters as well as of bibliographies and reference works.

LIBRARY ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION. A second fundamental of librarianship is that of bringing books and readers together. Cataloging and classification constitute one means for doing so, to be sure, but the nature and quality of a library's over-all services are determined by its government, organization and administration. The library school student, therefore, should have some knowledge of

"the legal or other basis of authority under which a library operates,"⁴ of the ways in which libraries are actually organized, the advantages and disadvantages of different sorts of organization, and of sound principles of administration with respect to clientele, personnel, collections, finance and physical plant. While much of the subject matter just indicated is applicable to libraries generally and while the elements and principles of sound administration apply equally to all kinds of libraries, certain factors and requirements, both of organization and administration, differ considerably from type of library to type of library. For this reason, most library schools have found it advisable to divide the subject into at least two main parts or courses : popular, public or free libraries on the one hand, and scholarly and university libraries on the other. If this is done a given student would presumably be concerned with only one of the two.

It is worth mention here that two arguments against the teaching of administration are frequently advanced. These arguments are, first, that a large proportion of library school students will never be "administrators," and hence to teach them administration is to waste their time. The second argument is that administration cannot be taught at all, that "administrators are born, not made" and that they derive their administrative ability from innate qualities of leadership.

The answer to the first argument is that

"...administrative knowledge helps to give librarians of all classes the correct view of their work and their institutions, hence it must be considered a part of the complete preparation. Persons in minor positions, furthermore, often have to assume some managerial tasks. Finally, men and women who have little expectation of becoming administrators sometimes do so."⁵

It is accordingly important that every staff member know how his library is organized and operated and be aware of his own place in the over-all structure.

The answer to the second argument is that, whereas students probably cannot be taught to be good administrators they can be taught the elements and principles of sound administration, the ways in which libraries are actually organized, the advantages and disad-

4. Keyes D. Metcalf, John Dale Russell and Andrew D. Osborn, *The Program of Instruction in Library Schools*. Urbana, Illinois, University of Illinois Press, 1943, p. 24.

5. Ernest J. Reece, *op. cit.*, p. 48.

vantages of different kinds of library government and organization, and other similar matters and concepts which will enable them to understand better the place of their own work and its position in the work of the library as a whole. Such understanding will at least to some degree equip them for whatever administrative tasks with which they may be confronted.

READING NEEDS, INTERESTS, HABITS. The third—but in point of importance certainly not the last—major concern of librarians is with readers, actual and potential. There is a very extensive bibliography on the manifold aspects of this subject, such as reading difficulty, the needs of various age, educational and occupational groups, reading interests and so on. It is important that the prospective librarian have some familiarity with this field.

The contribution of the library—especially the free public library—in the field of adult education is an important one and one to which increasing effort and resources are being devoted. Adult education is defined by the American Library Association as “the acquisition of knowledge by those beyond school age, obtained through such agencies as continuation and vocational schools, folk schools and workers’ schools, classes for illiterates, lectures, forums, directed reading, library service and the radio.”⁶

In a sense, then, most of a library’s services in non-recreational directions to adult non-students may be said to be adult educational in character. But the best modern public libraries today go far beyond a merely passive rôle here. Readers’ advisers, trained in psychology, guidance, the reading needs and interests of adults, and book selection are provided to give assistance to adult readers who wish to continue their education or to pursue some plan of study through reading. Close co-operation with the kinds of adult schools mentioned in the definition quoted above is common practice. Exhibits, small collections of books and speakers from the library staff may be furnished to such schools, to study groups, and to clubs of various kinds having intellectual programs. The library itself frequently sponsors lectures, forums and discussion groups on important topics of the day and may arrange exhibits, printed or mimeographed reading lists, and special advisory service in connection with them. The possibilities are, in short, virtually limitless.

The general topic of the library’s contribution to adult education

6. American Library Association. Committee on Library Terminology. *A. L. A. Glossary of Library Terms...* Prepared under the direction of the Committee... by Elizabeth H Thompson. Chicago, American Library Association, 1943, p. 3.

may well be taken up in connection with Reading Needs, Interests, Habits, as well as to some extent with public library organization and administration and the rôle of the library in contemporary society.

In addition to the foregoing curricular components, there is a considerable number of other subjects which may be included in the curriculum and which are, in fact, included in the curricula of many library schools. Brief reference is made to a few of the most common and useful of these areas. Which, if any, a given school will attempt to cover, and to what extent, are again questions which must be determined in the light of the over-all objectives of the school, its resources in money and staff, and the needs of libraries.

One of the more important of these might be described as the history of communication, with special reference to the history of libraries and the rôle which the library has played, and plays today, in the social structure. Some knowledge along this line is indispensable if the librarian is to have an awareness of the significance and place of the institution of which he is a part and of the history which has gone into making that institution what it is today. This area includes the history of books and printing and of their predecessors.

The subject matter suggested in the preceding paragraph is often included in library school curricula under some such course title as "Introduction to Library Science," "History of Books and Libraries," "Introduction to Librarianship," "The Library and Society," or "History of Librarianship." Opposition to the inclusion of instruction in this area is sometimes heard on the grounds that it is not "practical," that it includes little of pragmatic value for the prospective librarian, and that there is too much more "important" material which the curriculum must cover. These arguments appear to be unjustified and short-sighted.

"The gains of knowing well the history and place of their [librarians'] calling are clear. Besides enriching their vocational lives and bringing them a measure of distinction, it assures the facts and viewpoints they need for action, whether in making day-to-day decisions or in laying plans for the institutions they serve, or for their own careers... If... [libraries] are to improve, apparently those conducting them must be fully conversant with their meaning... without cognizance of his professional backgrounds the librarian is likely to exemplify the blind leading the blind. Given that familiarity, he can envision the potentialities of his enterprise, formulate his purposes with confidence, judge what is seemly and reasonable for his institution, narrow his experiments to matters so far untested, and restrict his errors to the kind that experience cannot prevent."⁷

7. Ernest J. Reece, *op. cit.* p. 18-19.

Many European and Latin American libraries, especially scholarly ones, are particularly strong in manuscript and archival materials and emphasize them in staff functions and organization. The subject of paleography and archives is consequently one which some library schools ought to consider.

Recognition of the importance of library work with children and of the special problems and literature connected with it is reflected in the offering by many library schools of separate courses in this field. Few library schools can afford to ignore it even though only a small fraction of students may study the subject. It should embrace a general survey, historical and current, of children's books and types of children's literature, criticism and evaluation of that literature, reading interests and levels of children, and the organization and administration of a children's room or department in a public library.

An examination of the programs of study of library schools throughout the world will reveal dozens of other subjects offered in one place or another. Special courses in school librarianship—i. e. library work with adolescents in connection with school programs—in the bibliography of subjects, such as law, music and medicine which are highly specialized, in book production and the book trade, bibliographical history, library buildings, and in the organization, administration and services of "special" libraries serving industry and commerce are more or less common. With the possible exception of school librarianship, these and numerous other not indispensable fields can ordinarily be embraced only by a school which is unusually fortunate in its financial and personnel resources. In any case, local possibilities, conditions and needs will dictate the answer.

What should be the duration of the library school curriculum? Quite naturally the answer to this question will depend to a considerable degree upon the objectives of the school, the comprehensiveness of its program and, to a lesser extent, upon the level of instruction and the maturity of the students. In spite of these variables, however, some light may be thrown on the problem by examining present-day norms—even though it must be recognized that these may differ considerably from a theoretical optimum.

In the countries with the greatest development in education for librarianship, the library school curriculum, following completion of general education, has commonly been set up to occupy a student's full time for a period of a single academic year of approximately nine months. There is probably very little rational justification for this; rather, it is the result in part of a historical tradition which has

set the normal academic year of most universities at about nine months, and in part a result of the fact that society's rewards to librarianship up to now have not generally warranted or made practicable more than a single year of library education for most librarians. Certain it is that, if the usual academic year of universities had been ten or eight months rather than nine, the duration of the library school curriculum would have followed suit. It is fair to say that a general consensus would be that librarians cannot adequately be prepared in less than about one academic year of full-time study and there are authorities both within and without the profession who believe that, in view of the complexities, widespread ramifications and multitudinous demands of modern librarianship, this amount of time is not really sufficient. Practical evidence of this belief is at hand in the United States, for example, where a few schools have offered programs of an additional year or more for those who have completed a first-year curriculum, and where some schools have now extended this curriculum so that it covers something like eleven rather than nine months.

It is almost certain that a curriculum of four or five or six months is quite too short to prepare competent librarians for the libraries of today and tomorrow, no matter how good the students, the faculty and the curriculum may be; there is simply too much subject matter to be covered and too much to learn. The Assembly of Librarians of the Americas set a *minimum* requirement of 360 class hours of instruction⁸. Assuming 15 hours of class work a week, this would mean almost six *calendar* months. The class hour requirements of most of the graduate schools of Canada, England and the United States range between 380 and 480.

It has come to be increasingly recognized that, with respect to the preparation of personnel, no library school can be all things to all libraries, that it is not sufficient for a school to prepare just "librarians," but that it must prepare librarians for different kinds of library work and that the differences in kinds of libraries require different kinds of preparation. This concept raises the question whether librarians for public, school, university, national and special libraries can all effectively be prepared in the same school or whether there must be several separate schools. In theory at least, the answer to the question is that, given sufficient resources and a sufficiently extensive curriculum, all kinds of librarians can be trained in a single school. But in actual practice few schools are likely to have adequate

8. Luther H. Evans, *Proceedings of the Assembly of Librarians of the Americas*, May 12 to June 6, 1947. Washington, The Library of Congress, 1948, p. 248.

staff and other resources for the purpose. If the personnel demands of a country's libraries are not numerous enough to justify the maintenance of more than one school and if the school's resources are insufficient for an all-inclusive program, several considerations are indicated. First of all, the school should concentrate its major energies upon the preparation of librarians for the most important and numerous kinds of libraries and those having the largest personnel needs. Secondly, the school's "core" curriculum should be so designed as to include the greatest possible amount of basic, generally applicable subject matter which will enable the school's graduates to be competent workers in the greatest number of different kinds of library situations. And third, a school may, in the second half of its program, be able to offer at least a single course in each, or most, of the several fields other than those of its major concentration and interest.

A problem which many new schools, particularly those in countries with little library development and without existing library training agencies, will face is that of the prospective student, employed in a library, who must continue working and who will be able, therefore, to attend school only part time. Where any considerable number of a school's prospective students falls in this category, it will be necessary to make special provisions of several kinds. Courses may have to be scheduled during evenings and on Saturdays or other days off and the curriculum planned so that the period of its completion may be extended to accommodate the part-time student.

METHODS OF INSTRUCTION

Two general statements may be made concerning the instructional methods of a professional school. The first is that these methods, while paralleling in some respects the obvious and well-recognized pattern of instruction of any institution of higher education, will include additional techniques not ordinarily applicable to or necessary for the study of such subjects as history, literature or philosophy. These techniques are ones designed to give the student a practical, first-hand working knowledge.

The second observation, stemming from the first, is that there is inevitably a certain conflict in educational philosophy between the theoretical, historical, and general instructional approach on the one hand, and the practical and specific approach on the other.

This conflict has not been wholly resolved even by the schools with the longest and most successful history. In their earliest days virtually all schools laid greatest emphasis upon the teaching of actual routines, to such a degree that a major part of "instruction" was carried on not in a classroom, but in a library. This emphasis was quite understandable in view of the emerging nature of the profession of librarianship, its preoccupation with the development of methods for handling printed materials and its need for personnel trained to perform specific professional tasks. In many schools in Europe, notably those of Belgium, Great Britain, Norway and Switzerland, and in Latin American countries and the United States instructional emphasis is still on the specific, the technical and practical, to the virtual exclusion of the theoretical and general.

The argument of the "practical" point of view is that librarianship has no general corpus of knowledge and that the prospective librarian can learn only by actual experience—whether in a library or in a cataloging or reference "laboratory." Those who would place greater emphasis on the theoretical approach—represented by schools in Czechoslovakia, France, Italy and, increasingly, the United States—argue that there is a generally applicable body of knowledge which constitutes librarianship and that the prospective librarian is better prepared for professional service if he understands and is capable of applying to particular situations the broad principles and theories underlying such subjects as administration, book selection and classification.

As one writer has expressed it,

"In our complex and swiftly changing world that man is most effectively prepared who is best able to adapt himself to new circumstances, who is most skilled in the function of problem-solving by the use of principles, and is least daunted by the changes he is sure to find taking place about him in the course of his life. Typically library schools have been training people who can take jobs and begin to produce at optimum effectiveness almost immediately. The training of such a person leaves little or no further implementation to be given on the job. But once the details of the situation for which he has been trained have changed, he is likely to become ineffective or be forced back on his own resources to make a successful transition. A graduate of a library school stressing theoretical considerations is admittedly not going to be able to produce at anything like optimum effectiveness for weeks or even months, depending on the extent and adequacy of the in-service training to which he is subjected. He might, however, be the better prepared to maintain the effectiveness of his work in the face of changing circumstances and to contribute to the practice and knowledge of

the profession. It is suggested that the proper function of library schools... should be to train persons of the latter stripe rather than of the former.”⁹

It must not be understood from this oversimplification that the instruction in any school or country is either wholly theoretical or wholly practical in approach. Every successful school must recognize the necessity for producing students who are actually capable of performing certain professional tasks in existing libraries, and probably no school ignores a theoretical consideration of some aspects of librarianship. The ideal is to be found in a co-ordinated blending of theory and practice.

“Effective professional education requires... [a] close connection between theory and practice. Without theory, practice becomes chaotic, merely a collection of isolated, individual cases. Theory gives meaning and unity to what would otherwise be specific and isolated cases. On the other hand, without practice, theory becomes mere speculation. The realities of practice provide a check upon pure speculation, a test of the adequacy of theory and also practice provides the problems which must be dealt with by any comprehensive theory.”¹⁰

The implications of the question are important and not difficult to discern. No matter how difficult the task, instruction must achieve,

“a balance between library service as it may be visualized by leaders in the profession, but not as yet generally attained, and the service more frequently found in libraries of various types. Too great emphasis upon the idealistic former may result in discouragement for graduates who may go into positions where service is conditioned by low financial support, collections that fall far short of perfection and a lack of comprehension on the part of governing authorities of the value of the services they are anxious to give. On the other hand, undue stress upon a too realistic picture of libraries as they are, without a vision of libraries as they might be, will send out graduates content merely to continue present activities. Practice usually lags behind the ideal and to the library schools belong in large measure both the opportunity and responsibility to bridge the gap.

As for other professions, the most effective education for librarianship is not primarily designed to give instruction in established practices. Its first concern should be to stimulate in the librarian of the future the ability to recognize opportunities for service, to

9. Herbert Goldhor, “Some Thoughts on the Curriculum of Library Schools,” *School and Society*, vol. LXVII, June 12, 1948, p. 434-435.

10. From the typescript copy of “Professional Education in Other Fields : Contributions to Education for Librarianship,” by Ralph W. Tyler, in Bernard Berelson (ed.) *Education for Librarianship*. Chicago, American Library Association, 1949. (Publication date July.)

adapt accepted methods and to devise procedures and organization in relation to changing social and educational needs of a library community. Although a library school must send out graduates who are reasonably competent to perform the work of positions as they exist, there is no conclusive evidence that the types of services now known in libraries represent all that might be created or that established services will remain static.”¹¹

The question is largely one of emphasis, with compromise between the two points of view a necessary *modus operandi* in any school. If one would make a somewhat sweeping generalization it would be to say that the greater emphasis in most of the longer established schools is today increasingly upon indoctrinating the student with aims, purposes, ideals and general principles, with a correspondingly decreased attention to specific routines and practices.

There are at least eight instructional methods which are applicable, singly or in combination, to one or more of the subjects of the library school curriculum. These are the lecture; the class discussion; the seminar; laboratory work; practice work; problems; papers and bibliographies; and field trips.

THE LECTURE. Little need be said of this most common of all instructional methods, which may be used effectively with classes of almost any size and in connection with any subject. The lecture is particularly useful for the presentation of general principles and historical material. In a library school, however, it is not by itself alone, sufficient for the teaching of some subjects like cataloging and reference, in which the student must acquire through actual doing, a personal familiarity with method and materials. A second caution in connection with the lecture is that it may be highly wasteful of the student's time, and hence educationally questionable, if it consists chiefly of material which he could as easily acquire through individual reading, or is largely anecdotal. Ordinarily a lecture is justifiable only if it analyzes, synthesizes and interprets for the student, or if it brings him facts or ideas which are not readily available in print.

THE CLASS DISCUSSION, which might also be described as the “question and answer” method, is generally employed in conjunction with some other technique, chiefly lectures, practice work (*vide infra*) and problems (*vide infra*) but can be satisfactorily utilized only

11. Anita M. Hostetter, “Questions for a New Library School,” in *Library Conference held under the Auspices of the Carnegie Corporation of New York and the General Education Board, March 14-15, 1944*. Atlanta, Georgia, Atlanta University [1941], p. 5

with relatively small groups, say not larger than 25 or 30. A discussion period, following one or two lecture sessions, may be used for presentation by the student of ideas gained from lectures and readings or for the presentation of problems assigned—in each case with questions from the instructor. Or, in connection with practice work, students may present and be questioned upon the results of their experience and observations in order to relate these to the more theoretical work of the classroom, to test students' powers of absorption and analysis, to bring out differences from common practice, etc.

The "question and answer" method is frequently employed in the library school curriculum, as elsewhere, without extended discussion. In this case, a specific additional purpose is to test the extent to which students have absorbed the content of lectures and have covered reading and other assignments. Whether the question and answer period is accompanied by discussion or not it gives students valuable experience in oral presentation and in "thinking on their feet."

At its best the class discussion-question and answer device is an excellent one but care should be taken to see that it does not become merely a parroting by students of what they have heard in lectures, or that valuable time is not wasted as a result of questions asked out of sheer ignorance.

THE SEMINAR, as used here, differs from the discussion chiefly in that it is *a*) effective only for very small groups of say not more than a dozen and *b*) a device of value principally for the more advanced rather than the elementary subject. In a typical seminar each of several students might be assigned for intensive study one or more problems or areas of a subject like classification. The results of each student's study would then be presented orally in detail and at length to the group as a whole, following which there would be extended and critical questioning by the group, and answer, amplification and defense by the individual. In such a situation the instructor acts chiefly as leader, guide, synthesizer and arbiter—and as consultant and advisor to each individual during the preparation of his report.

LABORATORY WORK. This term means, for certain courses in the library school—for example cataloging, classification, and reference work—just what it does for a subject like chemistry or physics, and the purpose and educational theory are identical. The theory is

that if a student is really to learn how to catalog or classify a book, reading about it or being lectured on how to do so is not sufficient; he must actually catalog and classify books himself. In a laboratory devoted to cataloging and classification, therefore, a student would be given books which present different problems of entry, description and subject determination. The problems to be worked on would normally have been considered and discussed in a previous lecture, and in the laboratory period, under the guidance of the instructor, the student would perform the complete processes of cataloging and classification of the books assigned to him. The laboratory method may be used for the same purpose and with equal advantage in the teaching of reference work and bibliography. In this case the student, following a lecture on methods and materials, would be given a series of reference and bibliographical questions and would be expected to find the answers to them. Guidance would be provided by the instructor and errors in method and omission of sources would be pointed out by him. The student who thus actually goes through the necessary steps and literature to seek the answer to a question will learn more in hours than he will from days of lectures which tell him simply what reference and bibliographical works there are, how they are used and for what purposes. Ordinarily not fewer than two nor more than three hours of laboratory time are considered the equivalent of one hour of lecture time in terms of units of credit.

PRACTICE WORK. This device is not wholly unrelated to that of the laboratory period but has a slightly different emphasis. In most library schools an attempt is made to have students actually work for a certain period, which may vary from a few days to a month or more, in a library. The type of library—that is, whether public, university, or school—would generally be the same as that in which the student's interests and background suggest he will probably spend his professional career. The purpose of this practice work parallels closely, of course, the purposes of the laboratory : the student learns by doing, he observes at first hand how library operations are carried on, for what purposes and with what results, and he relates practical situations, needs, and problems to what he has learned from lecture and reading and to the more theoretical approach of the classroom. If the student is to derive the greatest possible benefit from practice work, it should be adequately supervised, it should be as general as possible and not limited to a single department or operation of the library, and the student should be required to report on the observations and results of his experience.

PROBLEMS. Two kinds of library school problems, those of cataloging and classification, and of reference, have already been considered in connection with the discussion of laboratory work, but the assignment of problems need not, of course, be limited to laboratory periods, or to these two subjects. In reference work and bibliography, the student may be given problems daily or weekly and be required to present the answers in written form for comment and correction by the instructor. In book selection, to take another example, assignments may be made on the location of precise bibliographical information about titles, or on information about costs, sources of purchase, probable value for a given sort of reader, and the like. Problems in finance, personnel or book collections may also be set in a subject like administration and organization.

The chief danger in the problem method occurs when the questions have little or no relationship to real-life situations. Students are quick to sense this fact and are not likely then to have a genuine interest in the problem. The danger can be avoided by using actual reference questions and by acquainting the student with the purpose for which the original inquirer wished the information. Similarly, for problem work in other courses, actual library situations in, or questions of book purchase, finance, personnel, etc., should be employed and the student shown the significance of the problem and its applicability to the kind of library position for which he is preparing himself.

PAPERS AND BIBLIOGRAPHIES. Every librarian should be able to present the results of observations, experience, study, reading or analysis of a particular problem or situation in clear, logical and concise written form. Every librarian, equally, should be able to compile a satisfactory author or subject bibliography. The only sure way to test the student's competence along these two lines is by having him actually write papers and compile bibliographies. Written work of this kind need not be and should not be limited to any one subject of the curriculum but should be made a part of most, if not all, of the subjects of instruction in order that the student may have bibliographical and writing experience in as many areas as possible. It goes without saying that a student's written work should be carefully examined and corrected by the instructor and if necessary be the subject of individual consultation between instructor and student.

FIELD TRIPS. Many students come to library school with little real over-all knowledge about libraries in general, what kinds there are, what they do and how they serve. A good device for giving the

prospective librarian something of this over-all picture is the field trip. The main purpose of the field trip, therefore, is to enable the student to secure a modicum of acquaintance with each of the major kinds of libraries and its services and, while this purpose can be to some extent met through lecture and reading, there is nothing quite so helpful to understanding as seeing with one's own eyes. The field trip, then, under guidance of one or more instructors, would be arranged to include visits of an hour or two to at least one good representative library of each major type within the school's orbit. Reading and lecture—perhaps in connection with the subject of organization and administration of libraries—should precede the visits and discussion and possibly reports should follow them.

While the foregoing statements on curriculum and methods of instruction should be generally applicable to library schools everywhere, it cannot be too strongly emphasized that those responsible for planning the program of any school must constantly bear in mind local conditions and practices, and local needs, both present and future, in organizing the school's program. To do otherwise and to accept blindly and without questioning any program, no matter how satisfactory for some other situation, can lead only to failure and waste. This is no mere theoretical consideration but one of hard, practical reality which may be made concrete by a single example. Speaking editorially of a plan for professional education in India, the *Modern Librarian* says,

"all the four sponsors of the Scheme were Indians. It is, however, amazing to find that the Scheme is utterly lacking in the Indian colour. The authors of the Scheme appear to have been so much obsessed with their western training and their close contact with the London School of Librarianship that they have ignored, not only today's requirements of the Indian Librarian, but have also failed to recognize the valuable contributions made by our Indian authors, some of whom have earned a considerable distinction in the library world for themselves and their Motherland."¹²

12. Vol. XII, October to December 1941, p. 45.

CHAPTER IV

FACULTY AND STAFF

FACULTY

NO MATTER HOW GOOD the objectives, the curriculum, the methods of instruction, and the physical facilities of an educational institution may be, its fundamental excellence will depend primarily upon the quality of the faculty. In any enterprise the question of personnel is one of major importance, but in an educational institution the faculty should be the subject of paramount concern because in a very real sense the faculty *is* the institution. Too much attention cannot be devoted, therefore, to questions concerned with the selection of a good faculty. So far as library schools are concerned, the point has been stressed in this way by an experienced librarian and student of library education :

"...no master curriculum, no remarkable philosophy, no balancing of principles vs. methods, no appealing outlines and ingenious devices, can possibly mean as much to education for librarianship as the quality of the faculty, both director and teachers."¹

What are the qualities and qualifications which should be sought in a man or woman who is to teach in a library school? The answer to this question is not difficult to state. Such a person should have a strong, forceful and agreeable personality, including those qualities, not easy to define, which make for leadership. "Personality" naturally includes or is made up of a large number of attributes which are essential for success in any professional field but, in sum, the library school faculty member should be, as a *person*, one who will without question command the respect and confidence of both colleagues and students.

Second, the library school faculty member should be a well-educated individual, thoroughly grounded in history and literature on an international level, familiar with the broad principles of economics, sociology and government, and not unacquainted with the

¹. Joseph L. Wheeler, *Progress and Problems in Education for Librarianship*. [New York] Carnegie Corporation of New York, 1946, p. 46.

arts and sciences. Librarianship is concerned with everything that concerns man in so far, at least, as it has been set down in writing. It cannot properly be taught, therefore, in a vacuum or without relation to what man has wrought or thought or dreamed. It cannot, in short, be taught at its highest level by one who has an education less good than the best which the country affords.

Next, the prospective instructor should have teaching ability; he should be a good teacher with all that that implies as to knowledge of how to teach and direct students, speech and delivery, and so on. Teaching ability is not easy to measure nor can it be judged from a *vita* with the same accuracy as, say, educational background or scholarly publication. Teaching ability may be estimated by a competent observer, given sufficient time and opportunity, but these are not always available. Frequently the best criterion which can be employed is successful teaching, and the reputation which ordinarily follows it, in another institution. If this criterion is the principal one employed, the level of instruction and the nature of the subject should both be comparable to those of the position for which the instructor is being sought. Some previous teaching experience is highly desirable, for the wholly inexperienced teacher is always something of a risk. There are many well-educated, thoroughly experienced and wholly competent librarians—administrators, catalogers, reference workers—who have neither the interest in nor the flair for teaching and who would be unsuccessful in it.

Fourthly, the library school faculty member should have unquestioned professional competence. This means he should have a thorough knowledge of librarianship and libraries, or at least of some major areas of them. His knowledge should be both theoretical and practical, it should be extensive and intensive, and it should be such as to command the respect not only of students, but of peers and colleagues everywhere. This professional competence will be the result, in part, of the person's own library education, in part the result of reading and personal study, research and writing, in part the result of his practical experience as a librarian.

Fifth, as just implied, we must seek persons who have had good practical experience, preferably in more than one kind of library and in more than one kind of library activity. That is to say, cataloging and classification cannot be taught in the best possible fashion by one whose practical experience has been limited exclusively to library cataloging and classification; there should also have been, for example, some practical experience with the administrative relationships of cataloging departments to other departments, with

reference work, which depends so heavily upon the work of cataloging, and the like. Other things being equal, the broader and deeper the experience, the more significant will the contribution of the teacher be; "... means should be found of widening the experience of instructors, for unless the content of courses can be filled out with the meaning that comes from rich and varied experience, it will inevitably be thin and academic."²

Finally, the faculty member should be one who, through personal study, research and writing, has demonstrated an ability to add to the sum of knowledge of his profession. This requirement conforms to one of the major purposes and obligations, already noted, of the true professional school. More than this, it is some assurance of an inquiring mind and one not content merely to accept what is, simply because it is; it gives some assurance that the school, through its faculty, will assume a rôle of leadership in and play a part in the advance of the profession. Not least important, the individual who is capable of making and is prepared to make contributions of the kind indicated is more likely to be and to stay intellectually alert. Such an individual is not likely to merit the criticism, frequently and with justice levelled against the faculties of library schools, that they "tend to be followers rather than leaders and originators... It is rare for the library-school instructor to be ahead of the practicing librarian in theory or practice, and this is one of the most perplexing difficulties the library schools have to resolve in developing their faculties and in improving their instructional programs."³ "No curriculum, however well designed," as another writer has noted, "is likely to be effective unless the instructors themselves are adaptable and forehanded in perceiving new trends and conditions in librarianship... and the school that can build such a faculty is likely to attain a coveted position in the profession."⁴

Generally speaking, the requirement of scholarly attainment has been too much ignored even by the oldest and strongest library schools, and it is likely to be overlooked by a new school, especially in a country with relatively little library development, which may be hard pressed to find instructors with even moderate professional competence. The point, therefore, deserves particular emphasis. As one study has put it :

2. Andrew D. Osborn, "Education for Librarianship," in Lowell Martin (ed.), *Personnel Administration in Libraries*. Chicago, University of Chicago Press [c. 1946], p. 126.

3. *Ibid.*, p. 126.

4. Herbert Goldhor, "Some Thoughts on the Curriculum of Library Schools," *School and Society*, vol. LXVII, June 12, 1948, p. 436.

"A significant measure of the faculty can be obtained by determining the extent to which the members of the group have made contributions to scholarly literature in their fields of teaching and research...."

"Careful investigation has established the fact that in general a relatively high rate of scholarly productivity in a faculty group is associated with intellectual alertness, leadership in the subject matter field, awareness of current trends, and other characteristics that are highly desirable for a... university faculty. Students... are attracted to an institution for study when they have the opportunity to obtain instruction from outstanding leaders who are well known in the scholarly field because of their publications."⁵

The chief administrative officer should have the same qualifications as are required for other members of the faculty. In addition, however, he should have demonstrated administrative ability, some familiarity with problems of curriculum and curricular construction, unusually strong qualities of leadership, and a broader professional viewpoint than any other member of the staff. He cannot be expected to be an expert in every field of librarianship, but he should have personal knowledge of as many of them as possible, some knowledge of all of them, and a genuine interest in and concern for all. If he lacks this he will have difficulty in understanding and matching the justifiable enthusiasm of other members of the faculty for their subjects of specialization; he will have difficulty in discussing curricular matters on equal terms with them; he will have difficulty in making decisions impartially, or persuading his colleagues that he has done so; and, finally, he will hardly be able to provide the objective, over-all direction essential to a balanced, well-integrated and well-co-ordinated program.

Much of the foregoing is summed up and emphasized in the following statement : "Dynamic, informed, scholarly, skilled, enthusiastic direction, determined to push librarianship forward to new frontiers, means more to any school and to library progress everywhere than elaborate details of curriculum revision."⁶

While it is not difficult to enumerate the qualifications of the library school faculty member, it is quite another matter to find him. Where shall this near-paragon be sought? In most cases he must be found in libraries, in other library schools, or among persons who have at one time held positions in libraries or library schools. When a school attempts to secure a faculty member from among the personnel

5. Keyes D. Metcalf, John Dale Russell, and Andrew D. Osborn, *The Program of Instruction in Library Schools*. Urbana, Illinois, University of Illinois Press, 1943, p. 122-123.

6. Joseph L. Wheeler, *op. cit.*, p. 46.

of a library, it often faces a major difficulty in view of the fact that chief posts in such institutions frequently carry higher salaries than are paid for comparable education and experience by institutions of higher education. It is, therefore, of the greatest importance that the faculty salary scale in a school be at least equal to the scales prevailing for comparable education, experience, and other qualifications, in the libraries to which the school must normally look for its faculty. "...an inspiring faculty possessing notable abilities... can hardly be assembled and held together at inadequate salaries."⁷ It may well be argued that the school should have a somewhat higher than general salary scale in order to be able to attract to its teaching staff the most able and best qualified librarians of the country. If the school cannot do this it may have to be content with a staff of second-best persons and, since the faculty of a school is the group which must prepare future generations of librarians, the inevitable result is obvious. That is, the profession tends to mediocrity since new generations receive their instruction from the less able, less intelligent, and less well informed. It is an educational tragedy if not an educational crime, for any institution of learning to be satisfied with a faculty, and to place its students under a faculty which is in any respect less good than the best. Accordingly, it is essential that a school have a genuinely satisfactory salary scale. This means, in general, that its dean or director should be paid as much as the chief librarian of the largest libraries and as much as any dean or director in other departments of the university; it means that other full professors on the faculty should receive remuneration comparable to that currently given to the chief librarians of the larger libraries; and it means that for other members of its instructional staff the school should be able to compete, in terms of salary, for library divisional or departmental chiefs.

The question of full-time versus part-time faculty members is one which has plagued library schools since their beginnings and it is one to which any school must give serious consideration. In his famous report, already cited, C. C. Williamson discussed this question at some length and his observations are as pertinent today as they were when he wrote them a quarter of a century ago :

"As library schools have virtually all developed in close connection with some public or university library, their direction and most of the teaching have usually been in the hands of the members of the

7. *Ibid.*, p. 47.

library staff... Most of the schools have one or more persons giving full time to instruction, a larger or smaller share of the teaching being done, as a rule, by members of some library staff in the vicinity. The certainty that... each school will be found defending its own practice suggests that library schools have acquired the convenient habit of making a virtue of necessity.

"There can be no doubt that the part-time and full-time systems have each their peculiar advantages as well as disadvantages... For the most part, the actual practice of the schools is not determined by theory but by finances. Schools in a financial position to employ a corps of full-time instructors do so.

"The great advantage claimed for part-time instruction, and usually the only advantage mentioned by its advocates, is the opportunity through constant contact with actual library work to keep abreast of library progress. It is alleged that the full-time instructor is in danger of becoming an impractical theorist and even a formalist or reactionist. The claim is made in some schools that under the part-time system a better type of person is secured for both sides of the work than either school or library alone could hope to secure..."

"Serious disadvantages inhere in the part-time method. The instructor has no continuous contact with the student and is not so freely available for consultation and informal discussion. Part-time instructors are not likely to view their teaching in a broadly professional spirit nor take a deep interest in educational problems. In any such division of work, one part or the other, or both, are almost certain to suffer.

"[There is] need of at least one or two full-time instructors to look after details of organization and administration and to give the technical and major courses—cataloging, classification, and perhaps book selection. The part-time instructor in such subjects as cataloging and classification is in too great danger of teaching the methods he uses in his own library... For strictly professional instruction a broadly comparative and detached point of view is essential...

"Perhaps it would not be altogether fair... to use as a basis for ranking the schools the proportion of the teaching staff giving full time to the school. That, however, is coming to be a practical method of appraising other kinds of professional schools... This is, in a sense, inevitable because the part-time instructor is usually a result of an attempt to conduct a school with insufficient funds. The school with an adequate income, other conditions being the same, will be the best, for it will employ the best instructors who will give all their time to their school work.

"It appears from all the available evidence that a library school of high professional rank should be large enough and provided with sufficient funds to require the full-time services of at least four instructors to give the major courses, particularly the so-called technical courses. Being conscious of the dangers pointed out as inherent in full-time service, the individual instructor should, with the co-operation of the school, make the necessary plans to get the

requisite contact with actual library work and problems by vacation service on library staffs, by making library surveys, by sabbatical years, etc...”⁸

This excellent statement calls for little additional comment. It may be pointed out, however, that the total amount of instructional time to be provided is a function not merely of the major areas to be taught but also of the total number of subjects, the level of the instruction and the number of students. In connection with level of instruction, for instance, a faculty member cannot be expected to handle satisfactorily as many instructional hours or as many students in an advanced course requiring much consultation with students, preparation of new and complicated assignments, and correction of lengthy, more or less original students' papers, as he could in an elementary course where instruction, materials, and assignments are more routine and simpler. The factor of the number of students may be particularized in this way : if a school has seventy-five students, all taking elementary cataloging and classification, the securing of optimum educational results would require that the group not be taught as a whole but be split up into two or preferably even three separate sections since, at the level of graduate or professional instruction, something like 25 to 35 appears to be the largest number which can be satisfactorily taught in one group. This means, of course, a doubling or tripling of the total instructional time required for this course.

If a school must rely upon part-time instructors, or to the extent that for financial or other reasons it is forced to do so, it should attempt to obviate, in so far as possible, the disadvantages inherent in such an arrangement. A broadly professional point of view and a broad professional experience are of the greatest importance to counteract the natural tendency to teach the practice of a particular library. Geographical proximity is also important in order that the part-time instructor may be available as easily and frequently as possible for consultation with the administration of the school, other members of the faculty and students. It should be ascertained in advance that ample time will be available for such consultation in addition to the time required for teaching, and that appointments will not be made of “busy persons [who] rush to and away from class hours with little follow-up, with slight opportunity for

8. C. C. Williamson, *Training for Library Service*. New York [Carnegie Corporation], 1923, p. 42-44.

students to benefit by personal interviews and discussion, and with little chance to know and evaluate the students."⁹

A number of studies of the question of the service load of library school faculty members have been made but no recent, comprehensive investigation has been conducted. However, a committee of the Association of American Library Schools addressed itself to this problem in 1929 and the *principles* which it noted as affecting the service loads of instructional staffs, not only in library schools but in institutions of higher education generally, are still pertinent today. These principles are quoted herewith :

1. The service load of an instructor must be recognized as comprehending both teaching duties and non-teaching activities.
2. Subjects differ widely in time demands, and diversified programs entail proportionately more time per component than homogeneous ones.
3. Method of presentation has a material influence upon time requirements.
4. Other things being equal, the higher in the academic range the instruction stands the greater the time demands of a subject are likely to be.
5. Size of classes is a factor chiefly where revision or extensive preparation of problem material is involved.
6. The labor of carrying added sections in a given subject approximates that of carrying classes in other subjects whenever revision is a considerable element or whenever the work of preparing problems increases with the number of students.
7. A course offered for the first time normally calls for a notably larger number of hours of preparation than does one given for a subsequent time.
8. The number of class hours in an instructor's program indicates little as to his total service load and can be a measure of his teaching load only if weighted to comprehend the several factors determining the quantity of out-of-class work incident to his particular class hours.
9. The normal working week of library-school instructors, as of intellectual workers generally, may fairly be put at about forty hours.
10. The assignment of the individual instructor should approximate the normal working week, and should be arrived at after careful consideration of the various components in his proposed service load, the available criteria touching the time requirements of those components, and relevant personal and other factors not subject to measurement."¹⁰

The committee's study of time per class hour actually spent out of class by library school instructors showed, for various courses, the following median figures :

9. Joseph L. Wheeler, *op. cit.*, p. 50.

10. Ernest J. Reece, "The Service Loads of Library School Faculties," *Library Quarterly*, vol. I, January 1931, p. 37-38.

Library administration.....	3.59 hours
Library routines.....	4.38 hours
(e. g. loan systems, order work, etc.)	
Reference work and bibliography.....	5.50 hours
Book selection.....	3.95 hours
Cataloging	10.62 hours
Classification.....	6.75 hours

Non-course activities of faculty members, including duties concerned with student welfare and counselling, supervision of field work, preparation of exhibits, committee work and the like showed a median time of 9.37 hours per week.

On the basis of the foregoing, a two-hour per week course for the courses listed would require approximately the following total amounts of an instructor's time : administration, 9.18; library routines, 10.76; reference work and bibliography, 13; book selection, 9.90; cataloging, 23.24; and classification, 15.50.

If the committee's figures may be taken as somewhat representative, fairly accurate assignments of the teaching load of faculty members may be made for any combination of courses, based upon the normal working week which may be expected of an instructor, the time he is required to devote to non-course activities and the extent of the assistance he is given to reduce the amount of time he must spend out of class for each class hour. This latter consideration is particularly important in connection with cataloging and classification. Leaving out the former, and assuming the normal working week to be about 40 hours, it will be seen that the number of class hours per week (i. e., the weekly teaching load) of the average instructor should normally be somewhere between 5 and 7.

OTHER STAFF

In addition to its teaching faculty, a school will normally require a minimum of at least two other staff members if it is to function efficiently. One of these, a librarian, would serve as assistant to the faculty in connection with teaching and study. Typical tasks of this assistant would be the gathering of materials in connection with problems, preliminary work on problems and other assignments, preliminary correction of problems, assisting in bibliographical work, and in the revision of cataloging laboratory assignments. The other

person, a secretary, is necessary to handle correspondence, including dictation, typing and filing, to assist in maintaining the school's records of applications, students and graduates and similar office work. As a school grows in number of faculty, amount and extent of faculty professional activity, numbers of students and years of history, additional assistants will be required. For example, a faculty active in the work of professional committees and associations and in writing of various kinds may well need secretarial or clerical assistance in the ratio of one assistant to every two or three faculty members. Whatever its needs quantitatively, the school must be prepared to pay wages equal to those which prevail elsewhere for personnel trained in stenography, typing, filing and other office routines.

If library service is not provided by the institution of which the school is a part, or if the school, whether independent or not, maintains its own library of bibliographical and other professional books and journals, a full-time librarian on the staff of the school will in most instances be required.

CHAPTER V

STUDENTS—RECRUITING AND SELECTION

RECRUITING

HINDSIGHT PROVIDING us with the advantage which it does, it is easy to say that the library profession as a whole, including schools and libraries almost everywhere, has not done as much as it should have done or could have done in the matter of recruiting intelligent, potentially able young men and women with good personal qualifications. This fact is, of course, one of the prime reasons for the current, almost universal shortage of librarians. The obligation to play an active part in recruiting is one which rests not upon the library schools alone but upon every individual and agency of the profession. Indeed, because libraries and practicing librarians normally have more contacts with potential students, and because it is libraries and employing librarians who are in a practical way concerned with the end product of the schools, it is not unfair to say that the chief responsibility rests with those in the field rather than upon the schools. An eminent Norwegian librarian and critic of librarianship suggests that "There is perhaps a fundamental error in having library schools do the recruiting for libraries. It should rather be the other way round... What we need is hand-picked librarians... Larger libraries are... in a position to attract such people."¹ "The libraries," notes an American librarian, "should be the chief recruiting agencies..."² They should make active and continuous efforts to bring to the attention of non-professional library workers and others the advantages of librarianship as a career and should encourage in every way possible good young people to seek professional education. The schools, on the other hand, have a broad responsibility to keep libraries and employing librarians informed of their needs for students and of admission requirements, and to distribute printed material on the school and the profession

1. Wilhelm Munthe, *American Librarianship from a European Angle...* Chicago, American Library Association, 1939, p. 137-138.

2. Joseph L. Wheeler, *Progress and Problems in Education for Librarianship*. [New York], Carnegie Corporation of New York, 1946, p. 27.

in general to libraries, universities, secondary schools, vocational and counselling agencies and other groups and institutions which have contact with or influence over young people.

What the primary source or sources for students will be will depend in large measure upon the minimum educational requirement which the school sets for admission. If this requirement is graduation from a university, the chief source will be universities and recruiting efforts should be directed toward the earlier part of the university curriculum in order, for one thing, that the prospective library school student may secure during his university course the kind of education prerequisite to admission to the school. If the educational requirement is, on the other hand, the diploma of a *gymnasium* or secondary school, recruiting efforts of a library school must naturally be directed lower down in the educational hierarchy.

SELECTION

What are the qualifications and qualities which a school should seek in its students? Among the most important of these is the educational one and here, because of the very great differences which exist from country to country in educational systems, development and status of libraries and librarianship, and in the financial and other rewards which the profession commands, almost the only statement of a general nature which can be made is to say that the school should demand of its prospective students the very highest possible level of broad, general education. Writing on this subject, the Director of the School of Librarianship of the University of London has this to say :

"So far as public librarians are concerned, the need for the educated librarian has only been appreciated in comparatively recent times. By the term 'educated librarian' we mean not so much a scholar, as a man with wide interests and a cultured background who has more than a superficial knowledge of the books in his keeping, and a genuine sympathy with the needs of the people who wish to read them. The boy or girl who leaves school at 16... stands little chance of becoming an 'educated librarian...' It is now generally recognized that formal education should not finish at 16, and that technical training without a cultural background produces a result that is top heavy and ill-balanced, and is particularly unwise in a subject such as librarianship which depends for its significance so greatly on its intellectual foundations... It is evident that any system of professional training which aims at producing librarians

in the best sense of the word must encourage students to acquire something of this background before applying themselves to technical studies. That is... candidates must be sought from those who have proceeded to their higher school certificate and if possible to a university degree, rather than from those who have cut short their school career at the school certificate stage.”³

The highest possible academic background as a pre-professional desideratum is by no means limited to those preparing for public librarianship. “Education, the authorities are unanimous, is the primary and essential matter... All who propose to make their way into the higher ranks of the service should have had a university education, and should take a post-graduate course of training before they commence work in the library.”⁴

The same point is stressed in the report of an international study of education for librarianship :

“Il va de soi que c'est la formation universitaire qui est au premier plan et fait l'objet des plus grandes exigences pour le service supérieur des [bibliothèques générales, centrales universitaires, spécialisées, municipales et régionales]. Tout candidat à ces postes devrait avoir fait des études supérieures sanctionnées par des diplômes universitaires.”⁵

And the Executive Secretary of the Board of Education for Librarianship of the American Library Association points out that,

“librarianship requires a personnel whose preparation must go far beyond a knowledge of his own subject matter and procedures. A librarian's education must give him an understanding of cultural, social, educational, and scientific resources and agencies... His education begins long before [library school]... Great dependence must therefore be placed upon pre-library school education to supply that background of knowledge upon which a librarian must continually draw and which he must continually seek to extend. The pre-professional education of the librarian has repeatedly been described as broad general education...”⁶

Generally speaking, professional education in Canada and the United States tends to require a university education as a prere-

3. Raymond Irwin, *The National Library Service*. London, Grafton, 1947, p. 79-80.

4. Ernest A. Baker, “Preparation for Librarianship,” *Library Review*, vol. I, Spring 1933, p. 176.

5. *Rôle et formation du bibliothécaire. Étude comparative sur la formation professionnelle du bibliothécaire*. League of Nations. International Institute of Intellectual Cooperation. Paris [c. 1935], p. 25.

6. Anita M. Hostetter, “Questions for a New Library School,” in *Library Conference held under the Auspices of the Carnegie Corporation of New York and the General Education Board, March 14-15, 1941*... Atlanta, Georgia, Atlanta University [1941] p. 2-3.

quisite for admission to library school, whereas in most countries of Europe and Latin America a school certificate or diploma is the usual educational requirement. In Great Britain only the School of Librarianship of University College requires a university degree. In view of the opportunities, potentialities and demands of the modern library, library schools and libraries should wage an unceasing campaign to make possible and practicable a maximum, that is, a university education as the academic requirement for admission to the schools.

In connection with educational requirements it should be pointed out that a reading knowledge of English is almost indispensable for the library school student. The reason for this is that most of the basic texts, treatises, codes, classification schemes and other essential tools are available only in English. A writer who has had practical experience in conducting a library school in a non-English speaking country has written as follows on this point :

"...in order to obtain adequate training, under present conditions, a good reading knowledge of English should be a definite requirement for every student of library science. Too many of the basic works are in English to dispense with this requirement if there is any intention of establishing modern library practices... Political fears or desires should not be allowed to interfere with this basic need." ⁷

In many countries, however, the requirement of a good reading knowledge of English on the part of the prospective library school student may be an utterly impractical one. In such situations, as discussed further in the next chapter, arrangements would probably have to be made in advance for translation of the most important tools and texts.

The potentialities and demands of the modern library also require that library schools seek students of fine personal qualifications. Since librarianship is primarily a service profession this consideration cannot be too strongly stressed, particularly in view of the fact that it has in some quarters been more honored in the breach than in the observance. There are unfortunately too many librarians—and no country is exempt from the criticism—who, whatever their educational and professional competence may be, simply do not have the sort of personality which inspires confidence in others or

7. Raymond L. Kilgour, "The Library School of the National Library of Peru," *Library Quarterly*, vol. XV, January 1945, p. 48.

makes for leadership. Mr. Irwin has something worth quoting to say on this score, also :

"There is no room in the profession for the rejects from other callings, for the failures from the teachers' training colleges, or for those whose personality and temperament make them unsuited for other walks of life... Librarianship is neither a refuge for misfits nor a rest cure for invalids..."⁸

The school should make every effort to secure a sound estimate of students' personality through references from their former teachers and others and, above all, through personal interview.

A library school student should have in addition some real interest in the two fundamental areas which make up librarianship, namely books and people. The wholly materially-minded stands little chance of becoming a successful librarian, nor does the pronounced introvert who has difficulty in getting along with people. This latter point is, of course, related to personality; the librarian must be not merely interested in people but must also be able to work effectively with them. Because librarianship is a service profession those who come to it should have something of the spirit of service and should be interested in the opportunities it offers to help others. The personal attributes involved in these considerations are not always easy to discover, nor is lack of them always apparent. Yet the school has an obligation to do everything it can to assure that those whom it admits have not merely the academic qualifications, but also the mental and social attitudes necessary for a successful career.

Two other requirements may be noted. One of these, good health, is certainly implied in Mr. Irwin's statement and it is as essential to success in librarianship as to any other profession. Professional work in a modern library today is mentally, and often physically demanding, as anyone who has spent several successive hours aiding patrons at the desk of a busy library can testify. Aside from actual professional incompetence there is probably no greater barrier to a successful career than mental unbalance or physical ill-health or handicap.

The final consideration which may be mentioned here is that of age. Ordinarily, applicants for admission to library school will be those who have more or less recently completed their formal schooling and who are, consequently, fairly young. Occasionally, however, an older person will apply, often one who has not found a successful career elsewhere. The library school should be exceed-

8. *Op. cit.*, p. 81.

ingly cautious in admitting such persons, whose temperament, ability or intelligence may be such that they would be unsuccessful in any occupation. Even if this aspect of the question is not present, experience has tended to show that the older person—say one above 35 years of age—frequently has difficulty in pursuing successfully a library school curriculum, *particularly if he has been away from all formal study for some years and has had no library experience*. It is often hard for such persons to resume academic work, to make the necessary personal adjustments, and to master an entirely new subject. It may also be difficult for them to find satisfactory positions even if they complete the library school course.

In one respect at least recruiting and selection of students may be considered as two facets of the same problem. That is to say, recruiting has been made difficult because low standards of selection in the past have resulted everywhere in too large a proportion of librarians who in terms of personal or educational qualifications or both did not inspire the fullest confidence and respect of young people; they were not, in short, examples to be emulated and followed. The proposition has been well stated by one librarian in these words :

“The dignity of the library profession is what really counts in recruiting the right kind of person to serve as librarian. The quality of people in key and responsible positions—their ability, bearing, conduct, and even dress—will do much to attract the most desirable types of individuals to library work. This is to say that librarianship must be demonstrated as a sphere of serious and important work, comparable with medicine, law, and other professions in its potential accomplishments and in the recognition the community is ready to accord to those who work in it. By example, as much as anything else, young people will be influenced in rating librarianship as high as other fields of endeavour when they choose their professions.”⁹

9. Andrew D. Osborn, “Education for Librarianship,” in Lowell Martin (ed.), *Personnel Administration in Libraries*. Chicago, The University of Chicago Press [c. 1946], p. 124.

CHAPTER VI

RESOURCES, QUARTERS AND FACILITIES

RESOURCES

ASSUMING THAT the library school is a part of an institution of higher education, or at least has some connection with a university or other large library, it is important that the school's location be as close as possible to the collections of catalogs and bibliographical and reference tools. Ideally this means a location within the library itself. The reason is obvious. The nature of the library school curriculum requires that both faculty and students make constant and daily use of these resources, and the use is of such kind that if the school's location is at some distance from them much time and real educational efficiency will be lost. Indeed, it is almost safe to say that, with respect to instruction and study, from the point of view of both faculty and students, a school can hardly function satisfactorily unless it is located within a matter of meters from these major and indispensable library resources. (In case a school is entirely independent this question presumably takes care of itself since the school's quarters, resources and facilities, including those of its library, would normally be set up as a single unit. The same thing is true in the case of a school which, though an integral part of a university and located in the university library building, has nonetheless its own separate library and library facilities.)

The principal bibliographical resources to which the faculty and students of a school should have easy and ready access, no matter where or how a school is located, may be suggested at least in broad terms. There should be first of all files of and current subscriptions to the important national and international library journals and serials including, for example, *The Actes of the Comité International des Bibliothèques* of the Fédération Internationale des Associations de Bibliothécaires, *The American Library Association Bulletin*, *Boletín de la Biblioteca Nacional de Peru*, *Bücherei...*, *Bulletin de l'Association des Bibliothécaires Français*, *College and Research Libraries*, *Fenix*, *The Library Association Record*, *The Library Journal*, *The Library Quarterly*, *Library Review*, *Revista de la Biblioteca*, *Museo y Archivo*,

Revue des Bibliothèques, *Year's Work in Librarianship*, and the *Zentralblatt für Bibliothekswesen*. There should be a similar coverage of the principal histories, texts and monographs in all of the basic areas of librarianship, such as cataloging and classification, book selection, bibliography and reference work, history of the book, organization and administration, and the primary publications in other fields, even if they are not included in the school's curriculum. The great national library and trade bibliographies, past and current, for the principal countries of the world must be at hand. (These tools, in particular, taken as a group, are likely to be prohibitively expensive for an independent school which would have to build up collections entirely on its own and from the beginning.) Representative reports and histories of different kinds of libraries in different parts of the world, statistics of libraries and of book production and a more intensive coverage of such materials for the local scene are necessary. No matter how or where the school is located, or what its governmental and organizational relationships may be, it is a primary obligation upon the administration and faculty to make certain that the collections in all these fields are kept alive and up-to-date through the regular addition of the important new titles as they appear.

If the students in a school do not have a reasonably good reading knowledge of English, consideration will have to be given to securing translations or adaptations of some of the basic teaching texts and tools which are available only in that language. This does not apply to the fields of library history and book history in which good works exist in several languages besides English. For most of the other areas of study which comprise the library school curriculum there is little or nothing available in the way of up-to-date, basic tools in languages other than English. There are some works available in French, Spanish and Portuguese, for example : Jorge Aguayo, *Manual Práctico de Clasificación y Catalogación de Bibliotecas*. Habana, Jesús Montero, 1943; his "Modelas de fichas" and "Reglas de catalogación : 183 reglas de la A. L. A. catalog rules" (both mimeographed); Arthur E. Bostwick, *La Biblioteca Pública en los Estados Unidos*. Chicago, American Library Association, 1941; Marian S. Carnovsky, *Introducción a la Práctica Bibliotecaria en los Estados Unidos*. Chicago, American Library Association, 1941; James B. Childs, *El Encabezamiento de Autor para las Publicaciones Oficiales*, trad. del inglés por Marian Forero Nougués. Washington, Unión Panamerica, Biblioteca Colón, 1944; Wanda Ferraz, *Relação de Cabeçálos de Assuntos para Fichas*. Rio de Janeiro,

1944; and his *A. Biblioteca*, Rio de Janeiro, 1942; Pan American Union, *Reglas para Uniformar la Práctica en la Catalogación...* Washington, 1936; Gabriel Henriot, *Des Livres pour Tous*. Paris, Dussarié [c. 1943]; José Antonio Ramos, *Manual de Biblioeconomía...* Habana, Fernandez, 1943; Minnie E. Sears, "Sugestiones prácticas para el principiante en el trabajo de encabezamientos por materias...", trad. por Carmen Rosa Andraca (mimeographed); and Juan Vicéns, *Como se Organiza una Biblioteca*. México Editorial Atlante, 1941. But these—and the few modern works in Italian, German, etc.—are not nearly enough. Among the many more or less basic and indispensable tools and texts which might be listed, none of the following is available in any translation : Susan Grey Akers, *Simple Library Cataloging*. Third edition, Chicago, American Library Association, 1944; *A. L. A. Glossary of Library Terms...* Chicago, A. L. A., 1943; American Library Association, *A. L. A. Cataloging Rules...* Second edition. Chicago, A. L. A., 1949; James Duff Brown, *Manual of Library Economy*. Fifth edition... London, Grafton, 1937; Leon Carnovsky and Lowell Martin (eds.), *The Library in the Community*. Chicago, University of Chicago Press [c. 1944]; Melvil Dewey, *Decimal Classification...* 14th edition. Forest Press, 1942; Lucile F. Fargo, *The Library in the School*. Fourth edition... Chicago, A. L. A., 1947; and her *Preparation for School Library Work*. New York, Columbia University Press, 1936; Herman H. Fussler (ed.), *Library Buildings for Library Service*. Chicago, A. L. A., 1947; Helen E. Haines, *Living with Books*. New York, Columbia University Press [c. 1935]; Margaret Hutchins, *Introduction to Reference Work*. Chicago, A. L. A., 1944; Carleton Bruns Joeckel, *The Government of The American Public Library*. Chicago, University of Chicago Press [c. 1935]; Carleton B. Joeckel (ed.), *Library Extension Problems and Solutions...* Chicago, University of Chicago Press [c. 1946]; Eric Leyland, *The Wider Public Library...* London, Grafton, 1938; Harriet Dorothea Mac Pherson, *Some Practical Problems in Cataloging*. Chicago, A. L. A., 1936; Margaret Mann, *Introduction to Cataloging and the Classification of Books*. Second edition. Chicago, A. L. A., 1943; Lowell Martin (ed.), *Personnel Administration in Libraries...* Chicago, University of Chicago Press [c. 1946]; William Stetson Merrill, *Code for Classifiers...* Chicago, A. L. A., 1939; Isadore Gilbert Mudge, *Guide to Reference Books*. Sixth edition. Chicago, A. L. A., 1936, and Supplements; Julia Pettee, *Subject Headings...* New York, H. W. Wilson Company [c. 1946]; W. C. Berwick Sayers, *Introduction to Library Classification...* Seventh Edition. London, Grafton,

1946; Minnie Earl Sears, *List of Subject Headings for Small Libraries...* Fifth edition. New York, H. W. Wilson Company, 1944; Henry A. Sharp, *Cataloging...* Third edition. London, Grafton, 1944; U. S. Library of Congress, *Handbook of Card Distribution.* Seventh edition. Washington, 1944; *Outline of the L. C. Classification.* Washington, 1942; *Rules for Descriptive Cataloging...* Washington, 1947; Joseph L. Wheeler and Alfred Morton Githens, *The American Public Library Building...* Chicago, A. L. A. [c. 1941]; Louis Round Wilson, *The Geography of Reading*, Chicago, A. L. A... 1938; Louis Round Wilson and Maurice F. Tauber, *The University Library...* Chicago, University of Chicago Press [c. 1945]; James I. Wyer, *Reference Work...* Chicago, A. L. A., 1930.

It is not enough that bibliographical and strictly professional publications alone be available to a school's faculty and students. Public library finance cannot be adequately studied in a vacuum or without reference to municipal finance in general; the government of the public library cannot be fully understood without some knowledge of city government as a whole and the relationship of governmental units to each other; some appreciation of child psychology is indispensable for library work with children and for the study of children's literature; the school library and school librarianship must be set in the perspective of the whole system of secondary education; the reading of a community bears a relationship to its social, economic and educational status, and so on almost indefinitely. One writer says :

"Current trends in librarianship would seem to indicate... that librarianship as a profession, as a field of knowledge, rests solidly upon four other more general disciplines; namely, education, sociology, psychology, and public administration. It is suggested that, other things being equal, a student well-founded in his knowledge of these four fields is likely to be more effective in his practice of librarianship than a student totally lacking in any acquaintance with these fields."¹

Consequently, the library school student must have easy access to at least basic collections in the fields of economics, political science, psychology, education, sociology, and, in short, all the other major areas of human thought, including history, literature and science. Here, again, is a compelling reason for the location of a school in connection with a university, with its already existing library

1. Herbert Goldhor, "Some Thoughts on the Curriculum of Library Schools," *School and Society*, vol. LXVII, June 12, 1948, p. 434.

or, at the least, for location in connection with a large library resources of some other kind.

QUARTERS AND FACILITIES

While the physical quarters of a school need not be either elaborate or extensive they should be sufficient to provide minimum space of five basic kinds. There must be a private office for the dean, director, or other chief administrative officer where he may confer undisturbed with his faculty colleagues, students and visitors. The usual appurtenances of desk, chairs, book shelves, adequate lighting and ventilation, telephone (and, if at all possible, a dictating machine, which will be a great time-saver), are called for here. Immediately adjacent to, but separated from, this office there should be another, large enough for whatever secretarial staff there may be and here, or in another room nearby, there should be space for filing cabinets for correspondence and student and alumni records. Space in this general area must also be provided for office supplies of various kinds, and for typewriters, desks, duplicating and adding machines, and other normal office equipment.

Each member of the faculty should have an office of his own. This may, if necessary, be of minimum size—say two meters by three meters—but it should be an individual, private affair so that study may be done in quiet and so that students may feel free to consult without fear of being overheard. Faculty offices need have no more than a desk, two or three chairs, book shelves, a filing cabinet or two and adequate lighting and ventilation, but this much they definitely do need.

The amount of classroom and related space to be provided will depend upon the nature and extensiveness of the curriculum and the number of students. As a minimum a room large enough to hold the whole student body and a smaller room for discussion and seminar groups of 5 to 15 seem necessary. If two or more classes meet concurrently additional classroom or seminar space will naturally be necessary. It is not indispensable that such space be in close juxtaposition to other space of the school but it is highly desirable that it be.

At least one room, and preferably all space used for instruction, should be capable of being darkened for lantern slide, film slide and cinema projection, and projection equipment should be provided.

Building plans, the components of a title page or a catalog card, comparisons of classification schemes, and many other kinds of material can frequently be better and more quickly presented to and grasped by students by means of projection than by any other means.

Space of some kind aside from that of seminar and classroom must be provided where students may study. This space should obviously be very near both the library collections and the classrooms. Many schools have found it desirable to provide each student with an individual desk where he may keep books, stationery supplies, catalog cards and the like, and where he may prepare assignments, including cataloging problems. In any event, some sort of space to meet these needs is necessary.

In addition to the minimum space requirements just outlined, some additional facilities will frequently be found desirable if they can be provided. Rooms where faculty and students may gather for informal talk, smoking and other social purposes will do much to add to the *esprit de corps* of the school. A small reception room where visitors may wait to see members of the faculty and administration is desirable. If the school provides its own library service, separate space not only for the books, periodicals and other materials but also for the librarian and his activities and records will be needed. Adequate bulletin boards are not merely useful but virtually indispensable for the posting of administrative notices and announcements, class assignments, news items of general interest and so on. Exhibit space and exhibit cases will be found valuable, not simply as an instructional device to bring graphically to the attention of students masses of related material connected with course work, but also as a means for providing students themselves with an opportunity for planning and setting up exhibits, which are an important element in the public relations and "advertising" activity of any library.

It is recognized that many schools, now excellent, were started on faith and enthusiasm with very few of the minimum essentials mentioned above and in Chapter IV (Faculty and Staff). In setting forth the generally accepted standards and desiderata derived from experience, there is no intention of discouraging the pioneer or the institution that must make a small beginning.

CHAPTER VII

ADMINISTRATION, FINANCE, RECORDS

ADMINISTRATION

ASSUMING THAT a school is an integral part of an institution of higher education, its chief administrative officer should be directly responsible to the chief administrative officer of the parent institution and should not be subject to administrative direction by anyone else lower in the educational hierarchy. Nor should he or the school be under the administrative control of any committee, although a committee set up for *advisory* purposes on questions of policy, interdepartmental relations, personnel, admission of students, or curriculum may be not only justified but highly beneficial.

Subject only to the over-all policies and practices of the institution as a whole, responsibility and authority for the operation of the school should be in the hands of its administration which means, in the last analysis, in the hands of its chief administrative officer. However, on most matters involving policy, changes, new developments, and future plans in connection with curriculum, staff, budget and student affairs, the dean or director should freely and fully consult with and seek the advice of his colleagues. The purpose of this dictum is to bring to bear upon any given question the best thought of the faculty as a whole, to draw upon the special knowledge and experience which each member will have, to make certain that all members are kept informed about what is going on, to insure co-ordination and integration of effort and to foster staff morale and *esprit de corps*. Sometimes these purposes may be achieved through written communication; sometimes, where discussion and detailed consideration are necessary, meetings of the faculty will be called for. Such meetings, enabling all members of the faculty to have an actual hand in charting and guiding the course of the school will contribute in numerous ways to its successful operation.

In speaking of the desirable qualifications for a school's chief administrative officer, demonstrated administrative ability was mentioned. The principal elements of administration of any sort are planning, organizing, staffing, co-ordinating, directing, budgeting,

and reporting; and no institution or organization can be expected to function satisfactorily unless the person at its head is capable in these several fields, has a clear idea of their purposes and importance, and is able to carry them through for the organization.¹

"Planning" is essential to the satisfactory progress and prosecution of any human undertaking. Fundamentally it involves decisions as to purpose, what it is desired to do, what can be done, and the means and the methods which are to be used to achieve the desired results. The principal responsibility of *planning* rests with the chief administrative officer and requires him to possess administrative ability, including the ability to "handle" people, foresight, professional knowledge and competence, energy, judgment, moral courage, and stability.

Once a plan of operation is determined upon it becomes necessary to set up the *organization* which will make possible the realization of the plan. This organization involves personnel, discussed in Chapter IV, on the one hand and materials—in the present case, books, journals, supplies, and equipment (Chapter VI)—on the other.

The element of *staffing* includes all aspects of the employment, education, and relationships of personnel, and the maintenance of satisfactory working conditions. In a library school this means, among other things, the securing of the best possible faculty and other staff members, their remuneration, teaching, and work load.

In even a small enterprise like a library school decisions of various sorts must constantly be made on policy questions. In a school such questions are concerned with personnel, curriculum, students, standards, finance, etc. The making of policy decisions and their incorporation into "orders" constitute the element of *directing*. This, too, is the ultimate responsibility of the chief administrative officer—no matter how much advice and assistance he may receive from his colleagues.

Again, even in a small undertaking, its several parts or activities must be effectively interrelated in order to promote efficiency and to avoid overlapping and duplication. It is the function of the element of *co-ordinating* to insure satisfactory interrelationships. In a library school, for instance, it would be wasteful of time and

1. The material given here on the elements and principles of administration is largely based on the following works : Henri Fayol, *Administration industrielle et générale ; prévoyance, organisation, commandement, coordination, contrôle...* Paris, 1918; Luther Gulick and Lyndall Urwick (eds.), *Papers on the Science of Administration*. New York, Institute of Public Administration, Columbia University, 1937; and Lyndall Urwick, *Elements of Administration*, New York, Harpers, 1944.

educationally inefficient if detailed instruction on certain biographical dictionaries were given in a cataloging lecture when these tools had already been adequately covered in the course on reference work.

The element of *budgeting* is an obvious and no doubt self-explanatory one. It involves continuous study of the fiscal needs—personnel and material—of the school, careful planning to meet these needs, presentation of them to higher authority, and procedures of accounting and the control of funds.

The *reporting* obligation of an administrator is commonly thought of as extending in three directions : upward, horizontally, and downward. As to the first of these the manager of any enterprise or institution must present to his superior a periodic report of the organization's activities and performance, progress and development, problems and needs. Besides reporting thus to the president or other chief administrative officer of the university, the head of a library school has an obligation to report—no doubt much more informally—in writing, or verbally through faculty and staff meetings, to his associates and colleagues. A business enterprise commonly reports "downward" also, to stockholders and to the public at large for purposes of general information, publicity and good will. So, too, a library school should keep its alumni and former students informed of what the school is doing and, to some small degree at least, it should probably see that the "public at large," in this case chiefly other departments of the university and the library profession, is kept similarly informed.

In addition to these basic elements, present in the management of any enterprise, administration also involves a large number of "principles." Although these principles are indefinite in number, are somewhat flexible, vary in force and importance with differences in the structure, type, conditions and needs of organizations, and will vary also from time to time even within the same organization, it may be said that, when pertinent, they must be applied if the enterprise is to function satisfactorily. Some of the commoner and more important of these principles, so far as a library school is concerned, are given here with a brief word of explanation.

I. DIVISION OF LABOR. The object of this principle is to produce a maximum of results with a minimum of effort. It would, for instance, be less efficient for an instructor to teach an entirely new course each year than for him to teach the same course for several years in succession. It would be less efficient for two sections of an

elementary cataloging course to be taught by two different instructors rather than one.

2. AUTHORITY AND RESPONSIBILITY. Authority is of two distinct sorts : statutory, which is inherent in a particular position; and personal, which springs from the individual's qualities of leadership. Both types of authority are essential to any administrative officer. Statutory authority carries with it commensurate responsibility. That is to say, an instructor, given over-all authority for the conduct of a course, must be held accountable for satisfactory accomplishment. When a library school director or dean thus delegates, as he must, direct authority to a colleague, he no longer possesses the authority himself; he holds the colleague responsible and gives him sufficient authority to achieve satisfactory results. Nor can the chief interfere administratively, or usurp this authority unless or until he recalls it, because of unsatisfactory performance or a change of plan. It is to be noted, however, that even though an officer thus delegates responsibility, his own superior (i. e., in this case the university president) may properly hold him responsible for everything that happens within the organization under his command. Consequently, the selection of capable staff and the delegation of authority and responsibility only to those who are competent assume a particular importance.

3. DISCIPLINE. In an academic situation like that of a library school the concept of discipline is rather less rigid than it is, for example, in a military organization. Nonetheless, the concept even here does imply obedience to higher authority, diligence and energy in carrying out orders and policies, and mutual respect both as between individual and individual and for agreements, whether written or verbal.

4. UNITY OF COMMAND. The principle of unity of command says that any employee should receive orders from and should be responsible to only one superior officer. If, for illustration, a faculty member is assigned an assistant and if then the dean or director gives direct orders to the assistant, the principle of unity of command has been violated. The result usually is indecision and doubt on the part of the assistant, dissatisfaction and loss of prestige on the part of the instructor, and inefficiency in results.

5. UNITY OF MANAGEMENT. All activities which have the same general object or function should have a single manager and a single plan.

If we could assume a library school large enough to have three or four instructors in elementary bibliography and reference work, the principle of unity of management would require that one overall plan for the conduct of this work would be adopted and that it be placed in general charge of a single individual.

6. SUBORDINATION OF INDIVIDUAL INTERESTS TO THE COMMON GOOD. This is an obvious and universally applicable principle which says simply that the personal interests or preferences of any individual should not be permitted to take precedence over the interest and welfare of the organization as a whole. By way of illustration, the only satisfactory hour for the scheduling of a certain course may be one which the instructor concerned dislikes; in this case the instructor is obliged to yield his personal preference.

7. REMUNERATION. Salaries should be on a fair basis, they should be, in so far as possible, satisfactory both to employer and employee, they should be sufficiently attractive to secure staff with the required qualifications and to provide incentive.

8. CENTRALIZATION has to do with concentration of activities, is always present in some degree, and is neither good nor bad in itself. The counselling of students might be cited as an activity which may well be decentralized to some extent so that each member of the faculty contributes to it. Conversely, it would be foolishly wasteful, inefficient and confusing if each member individually ordered and purchased his own office supplies, stationery, pencils, etc.

9. THE HIERARCHY. The hierarchy exists in any personnel situation involving two or more non-equal employees. The hierarchic line serves as a channel of communication by means of which orders and commands descend from the person with highest authority to the one with the lowest, and information, requests, proposals and the like move in the reverse direction. Ordinarily, an individual or "step" in the hierarchic ladder may not be by-passed without prior understanding and agreement; the head of a library school would go through a faculty member in communicating with the latter's assistant.

10. ORDER. With respect to personnel, order means placement of the individual in the task for which he is best fitted. To take an obvious and extreme illustration, if the teaching and practical

experience of a faculty member have been exclusively in the field of reference, it would normally be unwise to assign him to the teaching of cataloging.

Material order has relatively little application in a library school situation, but if one may imagine a large table, containing a heterogeneous collection of indexes, journals, handbooks, book reviews, and general reference tools we should have an obvious lack of order which would result in unnecessary handling and loss of time.

11. EQUITY. This means that the staff should be treated with friendliness combined with justice and that they should be treated uniformly. It is a violation of the principle of equity if unwarranted preferential treatment with respect to salary, vacation, or work load is given to a staff member.

12. STABILITY OF STAFF. Like most other principles, stability of staff is a question of degree. Some staff turnover is not merely inevitable but desirable. It is inevitable as a result of illness, resignation, retirement and death; it is desirable in that a staff completely static for a long number of years would tend to become inflexible or out of date in its work. On the other hand, very rapid, large-scale staff turnover is equally undesirable since any staff member requires some time for study, adjustment and general initiation before he can perform his assigned function in an optimum fashion. If two or three out of four members of a library school faculty should change each year, a great deal of waste effort and loss of time and continuity would result. Such a situation would suggest a poor salary or other personnel factor calling for correction.

13. INITIATIVE. Every member of an organization from the lowest to the highest should be encouraged to exercise this faculty and should be given, within limits, the freedom and incentive to conceive and execute his own plans and ideas.

14. *Esprit de corps*. Many other principles and factors—equity, remuneration, initiative, unity of command, satisfactory working conditions—are contributory to good *esprit de corps*. The fostering of a sense of unity and of a spirit of harmony among his staff should be a paramount concern of any administrator for they are indispensable to the satisfactory operation of the enterprise.

15. SPAN OF CONTROL. This principle, which is concerned with the number of subordinates with whom an administrator must deal

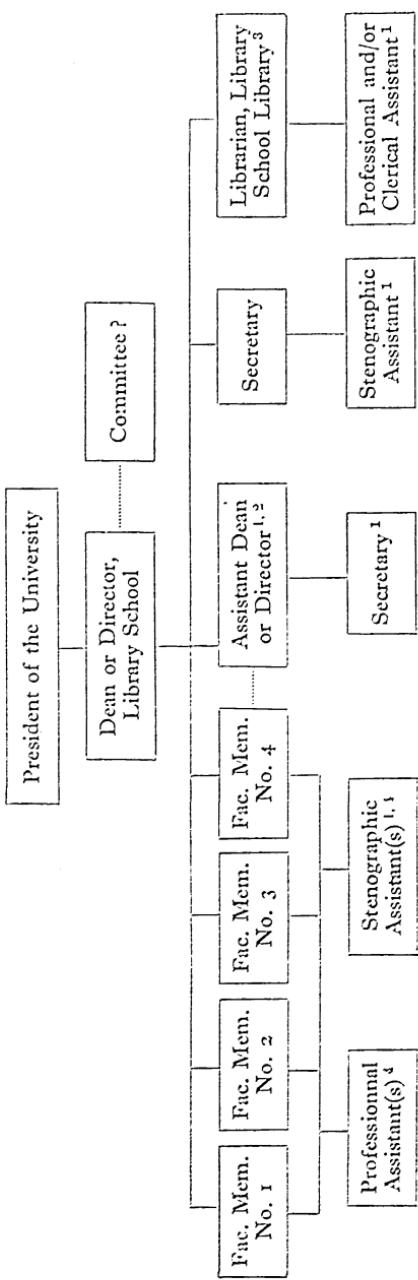
directly, will hardly ever apply in a library school. The nearest thing to an application which is likely to be present is the number of students in a given class and this question has already been dealt with. There is no "ideal" number for span of control; the answer depends upon the diversification of activities of the reporting subordinates, the nature of those activities, and the ability and breadth of experience of the chief.

By way of graphic illustration of some of the foregoing and to make the discussion more meaningful, Figure 1 shows a simple organization chart for a library school, with the line of authority, or hierarchy, extending from the president of the university through the dean or director of the school to staff members of the lowest rank. The chart, with its notes, is self-explanatory but one additional comment may be made. It will be seen that the several members of the faculty are given co-equal status and authority under the school's administrative officer, even though it is obvious that, in most cases, their academic rank would vary. The reason for this is that in all but the largest schools not more than one faculty member will be concerned with a single area of instruction and the authority of the one instructor in the field of cataloging, for example, will therefore be as great as that of the full professor in the field of administration, even though the academic rank and status of the full professor naturally exceed those of the instructor. The most common library school situation, consequently, differs from the situation in, say, a large university department of history or literature where a number of faculty members will be administratively under one head of the department or where there may even be sub-departments (e. g.) French literature, nineteenth century European history, each with its subhead and each with several faculty members under that officer.

BUDGET AND FINANCE

In view of the fact that library, university faculty and clerical salaries, and the costs of books, journals, equipment and supplies vary so greatly from country to country and time to time, and in view of the further fact that the nature and extensiveness of a school's curriculum and the size of its student body are other determining variables, it is obviously impossible to give a specific answer to the question, "How much will it cost to start or maintain a library school?" An

ORGANIZATION CHART FOR A LIBRARY SCHOOL



Line of authority _____
Advisory relationship _____

Notes :

1. Not needed in a small school or at the beginning of a new one.
2. Where size warrants an Assistant Dean, responsibility for a particular function or area of operation, such as student admission and/or placement, office management, or curriculum, may be delegated to him.
3. Might equally well be placed under the Assistant Dean where there is one.
4. Responsibility to more than one superior appears to violate the principle of unity of command; actually, it need not do so provided an understood proportion of the time of the assistant(s) is assigned to each member of the faculty.

Figure 1.

accurate answer to this question must, however, be determined by any institution planning to establish a school; it must be found also, of course, each year for already existing schools. This is an important part of the planning responsibility of the chief administrative officer. The answer can be found only by raising and answering these subsidiary questions : (1) What, specifically, are the objectives of the school? (2) What areas of instruction must be covered to meet these objectives? (3) What curriculum, in terms of number and type of courses, must be offered in these areas? (4) What faculty and other staff—number and qualifications—are required to give these courses and to handle the ancillary administrative and clerical activities? (5) What salaries and wages must be paid in the light of local conditions? (6) What will be the cost of the necessary books, journals, stationery and supplies, and equipment such as desks, chairs, filing cabinets, typewriters, duplicating machines, bookshelves, etc.?

In connection with the annual (or biennial) budget for presentation to his superior officer, the administrator of an existing school must, to some degree at least, and in consultation with his colleagues, review and re-evaluate the school's answer to each of these questions. Such a periodic review is necessary because the requirements of employing libraries and hence curriculum and staff needs are subject to change, because employment conditions and the cost of living also change, because faculty and staff resign, retire or die, equipment wears out, new journals are published, the size of the student body changes, the amount and kind of supplies needed change and their cost varies.

The major requirements in accounting and control will usually be dictated in the main by the policies and practices in effect in the accounting or business office of the parent institution. This means that the procedures followed by the library school in connection with budgetary sub-divisions, orders for supplies and approval of bills will largely be predetermined. Whether they are or not and regardless of the extent to which all financial matters may be centralized in a general accounting or business office, the library school should itself keep a simple running record of all expenditures chargeable to its budget. Such a record is necessary in order that expenditures as a whole or within separate budget categories be kept within the amounts appropriated, and the record is highly desirable as a safeguard against incorrect charges being made to the school's account. The separate categories under which financial records will be kept will almost certainly be those of the

general university business office since, if they are not, checking of the one account against the other will be difficult if not impossible. A minimum sub-division would consist of separate accounts for (1) salaries and wages, (2) equipment and capital outlays including books, and (3) supplies, stationery, printing, postage, etc. Each of these may be, and frequently is, further sub-divided as, for example, by maintaining separate accounts for faculty salaries, other professional staff, and clerical salaries. Whatever the details of the system in force in or best conforming to the needs of a given institution, the record should reflect at any moment an accurate picture of expenditures of all kinds to date and the balance remaining in each account. A file of copies of all requisitions or purchase orders for supplies and the like and of all bills approved for payment should be kept.

STUDENT RECORDS

The school will need to maintain a file or dossier for each applicant, student and graduate. A single alphabetical file may be sufficient, or separate files for applicants who were not admitted or for some other reason did not actually enroll, and for students and graduates may be maintained. The records may be kept in any sort of convenient container, such as manila folders designed to hold correspondence, and may be housed in ordinary filing cabinets.

Each individual student's file will normally begin, chronologically, with his application for admission to the school. Some kind of uniform printed or mimeographed blank for this purpose should be used for all applicants (see Appendix A). This blank should contain space for the following data : name of the applicant; address, both local and home; date and place of birth; nationality; marital status; physical disabilities; full educational history, with dates and subject or subjects of specialization; knowledge of languages; library experience, with dates; other occupations or positions; and names and addresses of references. If a separate interview form (see Appendix B) is not used, space may also be provided, if necessary on the reverse of the application blank, for comment after the applicant has been interviewed by a member of the school staff.

The student's dossier will also contain letters from references and previous employers if any, transcripts of academic work, a record of courses taken in the school with marks achieved, faculty estimates of the student's personal and other qualifications (see Appendix C),

copies of correspondence with employers and prospective employers about the student, including evaluative statements on his performance in practice work (see Appendix D), and post-school positions (see Appendix E), and copies of all correspondence with the student before, during, and after his library school experience.

In addition to this complete and detailed record, it will be found useful to maintain also an alphabetical card file, on cards approximately 12 cm. by 20 cm., of those students who completed the curriculum. The primary purposes of such a file are to aid in placement (see Chapter VIII) and in the compilation of statistics about graduates. The card should contain at least the following data : name, year of birth, sex, pre-library school academic education, specialization or concentration if any, language facility, courses taken in the library school and specialization if any, a chronological record, which should be kept up to date, of positions held and the salary of each, and faculty rating. Other sorts of data which might be included are publications, teaching experience and membership on committees of professional associations. In order most readily and quickly to meet the purposes for which this file is maintained, the cards should be equipped with metal, plastic or celluloid colored tabs, or should be punched or notched so that all cards containing a certain group of desired characteristics may be selected in a single operation. Each of the characteristics or qualities is represented by a different colored tab or by a notch or hole punched in the card. Thus, if it is desired to know how many graduates are employed as children's librarians or how many are receiving salaries in excess of a certain figure, the facts may be ascertained almost instantly. Similarly, and with equal ease, in connection with a request from a library for a new employee, one may select from the file the names of all those graduates who are, for example, under 35 years of age, have a good reading knowledge of two stated foreign languages, have had cataloging experience in a public library, and would be available within a given salary range. It is impossible for this kind of information to be secured, within reasonable time limits, from the students' dossiers, once the number of graduates grows beyond the capacity of any individual to remember all of the pertinent details about each.

Other types of forms may be found useful in connection with student placement (Chapter VIII) and, if employed, will result in consistency of effort and saving of time (see Appendices F and G).

CHAPTER VIII

PLACEMENT OF STUDENTS

WHILE NO SCHOOL can guarantee to find positions for its students when they have completed the curriculum, or can even promise to make active efforts to do so, the practical fact is that any school will find itself necessarily and desirably engaged in the business of placement. This is an inevitable result of the fact that the library school is the most logical single source to which libraries may turn for new assistants, and the source which will normally have the most complete and up-to-date information about its own graduates. Further, the school cannot fail to be concerned about the professional future of its students and alumni nor can it ignore requests for advice, recommendation, or assistance from either group. An active placement function, even though carried on in a very informal fashion, is therefore inescapable.

In its placement activities the school has a threefold responsibility : to its students and alumni, to the individual employer or prospective employer, and to the profession at large. The school's responsibility to its students and graduates is to see that they secure the best possible positions for which their education, other background, interests, and abilities qualify them. The school's responsibility to employing libraries is to recommend the best qualified available candidates for positions. The school's responsibility to the profession as a whole is to place its students and alumni where they will best contribute to the general welfare and advance of librarianship. These three responsibilities are not always entirely compatible and they may be in some cases in diametric opposition one to another. Suppose, for example, that a graduate is a candidate for a certain position in a library which has indicated to the school its willingness to employ him and requests comment on his qualifications and a recommendation; the school is convinced that the graduate lacks the necessary ability or experience or some other qualification for success in the position. What should be the stand of the school? It should be a candid statement to the prospective employer declining to make a

positive recommendation, with an explanation of the reasons. To do otherwise is to lower the prestige of the school, destroy the faith of the employer in its future recommendations, do a disservice to librarianship by placing an unqualified person in a position, and finally, do harm even to the individual himself, since he cannot be benefited by failure or unsatisfactory performance in a position. Or, to take another illustration, suppose two libraries are both interested in a single individual, and he is equally interested in and qualified for the position in each. What should here be the position of the school? If the two libraries are equally good and advantageous from all professional points of view, no ethical question should arise; the school maintains a strictly impartial point of view vis à vis both the library and the alumnus who will presumably in the end accept the position whose location or prospects for the future or rewards most attract him. If one of the two libraries is, in the judgment of the school, better from the point of view of staff morale or providing sound experience or in some other respect, the school is obligated to tell the graduate so frankly.

Guidance and care on the part of the library school officer charged with placement are also required to prevent repetition of the

cases on record in which, for a [small] difference [in salary]... a promising person has jeopardized his professional development by taking what has proved to be merely an apparently better position in preference to one in which there was room for him to grow. The only way of avoiding such situations is for placement officers to see that promising young people start out in libraries where they will have the best opportunities to learn and develop¹.

Other kinds of conflict, as when a library seeks an opinion about two graduates for the same position or when an opening occurs for which no fully qualified (and interested) candidate is available, occur frequently. In every instance the only possible policy for the school is one of absolute frankness, strict impartiality, professional integrity and freedom from personal bias. Violation of these precepts will inevitably lead to grave dissatisfaction on the part of both alumni and employing libraries, loss of prestige throughout the profession, lack of confidence in the school's recommendations, and poorer opportunities for its students and graduates.

The school should discourage its graduates from changing positions too frequently and it is ordinarily justified in declining to recommend

1. Andrew D. Osborn, "Education for Librarianship," in Lowell Martin (ed.), *Personnel Administration in Libraries*. Chicago, University of Chicago Press [c. 1946], p. 128.

for a new position anyone who has not been in his present one for at least a year. Unless such a policy is followed unfairness to employing libraries will result, since it ordinarily takes a new staff member several months to become oriented and to learn the procedures of a given library before he can really begin to earn his salary. Conversely, the employee will generally not be able to derive the maximum professional benefits from any position in less than a year—and usually the period is longer than that.

The opposite side of this coin concerns the individual who, for one reason or another, remains in a position beyond the time when he can develop professionally in it. How long this period is depends upon a number of variables such as the nature and responsibilities of the position and the status and abilities of the individual. In general, the lower the professional level of the position, the shorter may be the tenure in it. Something like three to five years may be considered a desirable maximum for the beginning or near beginning position. The library school has some obligation both to its graduates and to the profession at large to see that the former do not stay too long in such positions but are given opportunities to advance.

"It is difficult to say," notes one writer on this subject, "which does more harm—moving people on to new positions too quickly or leaving them too long in the one post. What stands out clearly in both instances is that these situations can be handled wisely only if employing librarians and [library school] placement officials co-operate."²

The efficient carrying out of placement work will require the use of one or more forms (see Appendices F and G). The most important of these forms, an example of which is shown in Appendix G, is that which gives information about students and alumni to be sent to prospective employers. This information is secured from the records described in the previous chapter and should include as a minimum the following data : name, address, date of birth, marital status, academic and library school education and specialization, language ability, library experience and evaluative statements from faculty and employers.

2. *ibid.*, p. 129.

CHAPTER IX

PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION OUTSIDE OF LIBRARY SCHOOLS

WHILE EXPERIENCE in librarianship, as in the other professions, has shown that formal, regulated schooling is generally the best means for providing an educated and trained personnel, there are certain other useful, not to say valuable devices which should be noted. These may be used, even where library schools exist, as a supplement or complement to formal instruction, in which case they may be sponsored by or inaugurated in co-operation with a library school. Or, in situations where, for financial or other reasons, establishment of a library school is impossible, most of these additional means for fostering the development of professional personnel may be instituted quite separately. The principal instruments of the sort are conferences, institutes, in-service training, of which there are many kinds, and what is known on the North American continent as "workshops."

CONFERENCES

The conference is everywhere so well known that little comment is necessary. In librarianship, conferences are generally sponsored or held by some professional association. The association and the scope of the conference may be national, regional, or local in coverage; they may be concerned with every conceivable phase of library work, with a single type such as public, university, or school librarianship, or with a very small area such as uniform cataloging rules; conferences may be small and informal or large formal affairs with elaborate agenda and proceedings; they may be brief in duration or extend over a period of a good many days. Even where no professional association exists the conference may be set up by interested individuals acting as a group for a common purpose. Whatever the external characteristics of a conference may be, those responsible

for its planning should make certain (1) that the topics, questions, or problems to be considered are ones of general interest and concern to the prospective attendants, (2) that those who will speak on, read papers on, or discuss these topics and questions are the most competent and best-informed persons available, and (3) that opportunity be given to everyone who can benefit by the sessions to be present at them.

INSTITUTES

The institute differs from the conference in that it is ordinarily organized around a single topic or type of library activity, such as education for librarianship, or library work with children, and is consequently more intensive and smaller in size. The institute is frequently of longer duration than the conference and may, in fact, when it extends over a period of several weeks, constitute an informal course.

Among the most successful and valuable series of institutes have been those of the Graduate Library School of the University of Chicago. These institutes, held in the summer and lasting about a week, have dealt with such topics as personnel administration in libraries, the acquisition and cataloging of books, the practice of book selection, library extension, and the reference function of the library. The papers of the Chicago institutes have been published and constitute a valuable contribution to professional literature.

The institute need not be so elaborate as are those which have been held at Chicago, but its main features remain about the same : selection of a topic involving either a controversial subject, one which presents unsolved problems, or one for which, for some other reason, there is a need or demand for thorough consideration; breaking up of the main topic into sub-topics; selection of competent speakers and discussion leaders; and dissemination, in some form, of the proceedings of the institute.

Although institutes need not necessarily be organized by a library school, they are likely to be most profitable for all concerned if they are held at a university with its library facilities and appropriate meeting places. A university locale will usually enable participants to live and eat together and will thus foster informal discussion and the interchange of ideas and opinions.

The institute is a particularly worthwhile device for advancing librarianship in special or limited subjects which it would not be

practicable or possible for the average school to include regularly in its curriculum, or in ones which, because of local conditions and needs, seem to call for thorough consideration at a particular time. Recruiting for the profession, national certification of librarians, education for or problems connected with highly special types of library work, as for instance law or medical librarianship, are examples.

IN-SERVICE TRAINING

In-service training is a generic phrase which applies to any of a number of forms of planned and organized on-the-job training. It is designed to achieve one or more of the following purposes : general orientation of a new employee; training for a particular position; education or training for higher efficiency in a particular position; education or training for promotion and advancement; training of a general sort not applicable simply to a particular position or library.

The concept of in-service training is not a new one. The young man who apprenticed himself to a doctor, lawyer, artist or merchant undertook a form of in-service training even though it frequently entailed little in the way of planning and organization. Today effective in-service training pre-supposes both, and includes analysis of the work to be done or the results to be achieved as well as outlining of the specific steps necessary to produce them.

An in-service training program may be as brief as a few hours or days or it may extend over a period of a year; it may take place in or out of working hours; it may be formal or informal; it may be extensive or intensive or both. In-service training may consist of a regular apprenticeship or internship, frequently involving lectures, discussion groups, assigned reading and supervised practice in one or more of a library's activities or departments; or it may be limited simply to one or more of these devices.

Apprenticeship implies learning in service without previous formal professional education. It also implies training for a particular job or at least for work in a particular institution. Two attitudes toward library apprenticeships may be distinguished. The first, common in many European and Latin-American countries, where the value of formal professional schooling has not been so fully recognized as in the United States, conceives of learning in service as a substitute

for formal professional education. In most countries of Europe the professional competence of the prospective librarian is then tested by examination following the period of his apprenticeship. Even in those countries, such as England and Norway, which have library schools, apprenticeship preparation for the profession still persists and is responsible for a large proportion of those who enter the field.

The second conception of apprenticeship considers this form of training chiefly as orientation for subsequent library school education. This is the situation in the United States, where the library school has almost entirely replaced the apprenticeship system as the main road for entrance into the profession.

The apprenticeship, when considered as a prerequisite or a desirable preliminary to formal professional schooling, offers real advantages in providing the prospective student with some of the terminology, concepts and practices which otherwise are entirely foreign to him when he enters school. When utilized, even in conjunction with examinations, as the sole means for preparing librarians the apprenticeship system has great disadvantages. These have been implied earlier in this pamphlet but may be summarized as follows :

1. Instruction is frequently too little controlled and seldom provides for regular and thorough checks on the progress and knowledge of the apprentice.
2. Instruction can seldom be genuinely comprehensive since it is ordinarily limited to the work of a particular *type* of library.
3. Even if instruction is adequately thorough in the practices and procedures of the library it is generally limited to these practices and does not take into account either possible alternative methods or broad theoretical points of view.
4. The two preceding considerations mean that students are not easily interchangeable between libraries and when they go to a position in another library they require a disadvantageously long period of orientation.
5. An apprenticeship system is expensive to maintain since it requires training to be carried on in half a dozen or a dozen places rather than in one or two or three.
6. Practicing librarians, no matter how professionally competent they may be, are not always good teachers or familiar with teaching methods, problems of instruction and the like.
7. The work of the library may suffer as a result of attention devoted to apprentices by members of the library staff, and as the excellence of the training of apprentices and time devoted to them by

members of the staff increase, the disadvantages for the library also increase.

A good apprenticeship system can obviate some of these disadvantages though it is very unlikely that any such system can avoid them all.

The *internship* is another form of practical instruction-with-pay. It is much more widely used, and to greater advantage, in certain other professions such as medicine, public administration, business, museology and law than in librarianship. In its most precise meaning the internship differs from the apprenticeship in that it pre-supposes completion of formal professional schooling. Usually, also, the intern is not necessarily being trained for a particular job or even for permanent employment in the institution where he undertakes his internship. Normally, the intern is a recent graduate of a formal professional curriculum who, by special and more or less regularized arrangement, enters a practical situation—a hospital, a law office, a business firm, or a library—for a combination of work and personal instruction. The work should be of a significant, non-routine kind permitting the application of theoretical training to actual practice. Sometimes, but not always, the student intern, in exchange for the supervised instruction, will accept a smaller salary than would be given to a regular professional appointee of the same qualifications. In any case, the intern should receive the advantage of working under and observing the work of expert practitioners in his field, and through his observations and the supervised instruction he is given be able to develop his own abilities more rapidly than would be the case without these benefits.

Library internships have not been very widely used and it is difficult to see why this is so in view of the demonstrated value of internships elsewhere. Perhaps one reason is that the organization of libraries and the fact that they are generally understaffed do not make easy the provision of the necessary expert and supervised instruction; without this the whole idea of the internship breaks down and it becomes simply a means whereby a library secures cheap labor. A specific and co-ordinated program of work must be laid out for the intern and his superior must have the definite intent, the time, and the competence to provide constant supervision and instruction.

The Library of Congress has recently undertaken what promises to be an interesting and most worthwhile internship program whereby 15 young men and women will enter the employ of the Library immediately upon graduation from library school. These neophytes

will undergo intensive half-time training for three months in technical processes and will participate in a broad orientation program designed to give them a well-rounded knowledge of these processes, reference services and administrative activities and of the history, organization, policies and principal objectives of the Library. There can be little doubt that this program will provide an exceedingly valuable professional beginning for those fortunate enough to be accepted for it.

While few libraries will be able to offer such a large-scale program as that contemplated by the Library of Congress, most larger libraries should be able each year to arrange for at least one or two similar internships which would not only benefit a small number of newcomers to the profession but would also serve as a useful recruiting device for the library.

In-service training may be accomplished, quite aside from any formal system of apprenticeships or internships, through an almost infinite number of media. Among the more common and useful of these are the staff meeting, the staff manual, which is a valuable orientation device for the new employee, as well as a reference work on the policies, practices and organization of the library for all staff members; planned, supervised, assigned reading on topics related to the specific work of the employee; lectures of different kinds and at different professional levels given by competent and experienced staff members; discussion groups on library problems, practices and policies; extensive and intensive library tours; bulletins; exhibits; and correspondence courses, where they exist or can be brought into being.

'At the New York Public Library a series of meetings of two hours each is carried out to introduce new members of the staff to the work of the library. The courses are designed for library-school graduates and assume the assistants' familiarity with the general library field. The director of the library talks about the history and policies of the library, and the heads of the various departments tell of their part in the organization, the aim being to acquaint the new assistant with the library and its department heads and to give him a sense of participation in carrying out policies.¹

A number of libraries have found it worth while to inaugurate a regular system of rotation of trained assistants from department to department. The staff member may work in each department

¹. Francis R. St. John, "In-service Training," in Lowell Martin (ed.), *Personnel Administration in Libraries*, papers presented before the Library Institute at the University of Chicago, August 27-September 1, 1945. Chicago, University of Chicago Press [c. 1946], p. 136.

anywhere from a few days to six months. Such a system gives the staff member a real and practical understanding of the work of each department and of the organization of the library as a whole, it produces a flexible staff, and tends to develop persons for general administrative positions. It should be noted, however, that this is a somewhat expensive form of in-service training inasmuch as it requires a great deal of high level instructional and supervisory time of departmental staff members, and inasmuch as those being put through the system cannot remain long enough in any one department to become fully and independently competent assistants for it.

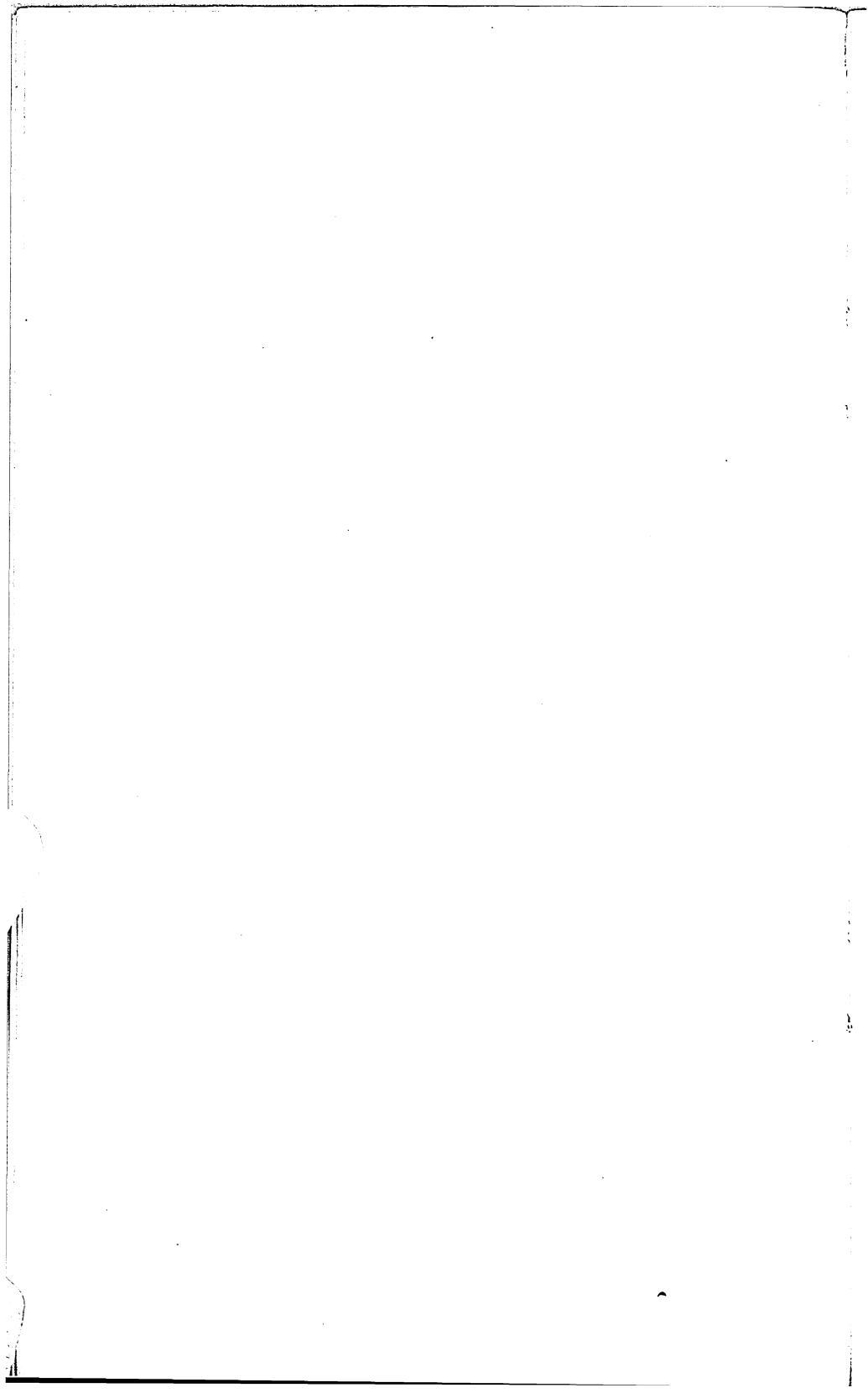
WORKSHOPS

The workshop, originally developed in the last decade for the study of educational problems, has been successfully and increasingly employed in librarianship. The essential characteristics of a workshop are that it brings together a relatively small group of experienced practitioners in closely related fields of activity. Each participant brings to the workshop a particular problem calling for study and solution. The purpose of the workshop, which is organized around these problems as a group, is to provide a directing personnel and material facilities, such as printed matter, for the study of the problems. A good workshop is a complex affair and difficult to organize for it requires, in addition to an expert staff and adequate facilities, an interested and experienced group of participants, careful planning in advance which will yet permit great flexibility as problems are studied and new ones are discovered, careful direction which at the same time permits freedom of action on the part of the participants, and continuous evaluation. A workshop functions through group meetings, lectures, conferences, small discussion groups, and committees as well as through individual study and reading. A large number of workshops have been conducted in the United States concerned with problems related to such areas as school library administration and organization, school library materials, the teaching of reference work, the library's rôle in adult education, and the integration of municipal and school library service.

The features and procedures of an actual somewhat typical workshop may be outlined.² Thirty experienced teachers planning to

2. Condensed from a report by Grace Hightower, "Georgia's 1947 Workshop Provided a Library Complete with Pupils," *Library Journal*, vol. LXXIII, March 15, 1948, p. 457-458.

become teacher librarians were brought together under an expert staff to study the broad problem of school library reorganization for more effective service. The group proceeded to create a real library for a particular elementary school, beginning with an examination of the educational and community background of the school and going on to approved standards for housing, problems of equipment, the selection, ordering, classification, cataloging and weeding of books, periodicals and audio-visual materials, co-operative planning, statistics and reports, publicity and instruction in the use of the library. For each phase of the work there was analysis of what needed to be done, study of all available literature on the subject, consultations with experienced people, discussion of findings, planning of what to do and how to do it, and carrying out of the plans made. The principles and practices evolved were considered in the light of the library situation in the communities from which the members of the group came.



APPENDICES

SOME APPLICATION FORMS FOR ADMISSION TO AMERICAN LIBRARY SCHOOLS

APPENDIX A
UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN
DEPARTMENT OF LIBRARY SCIENCE

Date.....

Those who contemplate fitting themselves for the library profession should meet certain personal as well as scholastic requirements. In order that just consideration may be given to your application for admission to the course of Library Science at the University of Michigan, you are asked to supply the following information, and to *attach a photograph*, preferably passport size.

Name :

Home address :

Present address, if different from above :.....

Place and date of birth :

Single..... Married..... Divorced..... Widowed

1. What is the condition of your health?
 2. Have you any physical disabilities?
 3. Name all the institutions you have attended since beginning your high school work, giving dates of attendance at each and certificate or degree received.

4. Foreign languages studied Years in Hours in
High School College

French.....

German.....

Other.....

Languages other than English spoken fluently.....

5. What has been your field of major interest in your undergraduate work?.....
graduate work?.....

6. Have you ever made application for a course in Library Science at any other institutions?

Where?..... Date :.....

7. When do you plan to enter the Department of Library Science?
First semester?..... Summer session?..... What year?.....

8. Have you had experience in library work?

Place	Name of Library	Position	Inclusive dates
-------	-----------------	----------	-----------------

9. Mention any business or professional experience you have had aside from study or library work.

10. Military Service : Give inclusive dates, branch of service and other pertinent information such as foreign service, etc.

11. Mention any opportunities you have had for special study or travel.
12. Do you expect to be interested in:

1. part or full-time work?
2. student loans?
3. service scholarships?

13. Is there any type of library work in which you are especially interested?
14. What ability have you in typing?

15. Since a personal interview with applicants is very desirable, could you arrange to come to Ann Arbor for this purpose?

If you could not come to Ann Arbor, are you near some library where you could meet the librarian of that library for an interview?

16. References :

I.

2.....
3.....

APPENDIX B

UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA SCHOOL OF LIBRARIANSHIP INTERVIEW BLANK

Name

Home address..... Telephone.....

Profession.....

Present position.....

Previous experience.....

.....

.....

College education

Grade average..... Approximate age.....

Physical defects.....

Object of call.....

Announcement..... Application blanks and instructions.....

Comment :

Date Signed.....

APPENDIX C

COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY SCHOOL OF LIBRARY SERVICE FACULTY RATINGS ON STUDENTS

.....
Student's name

.....
Date

Indicate ratings by A B C D E (A, exceptional; B, very good; C, average; D, poor; E, very poor). Pass over without giving a rating those traits on which you are not able to give an opinion based on your personal knowledge of the student.

Ability to do team work	Adaptability
Organizational ability	Dignity
Ability to speak in public	Emotional stability
Ability to organize material for speaking or writing	Courtesy
Ability to meet people	Tact
Ability to inspire confidence	Enthusiasm
Ability to comprehend oral statements	Industriousness
Mental ability	Sense of responsibility
Resourcefulness	Attitude toward criticism
Memory	Initiative
Objectivity	Poise
Judgment	Social consciousness
Power of observation	Imagination
Originality	Sense of humour
Leadership	Background—social and cultural
Decision	Background—educational
Accuracy	Background—experience
Neatness	Knowledge of books
Speed	Physique
Carefulness in keeping appointments	Appearance, carriage, dress
Thoroughness	Health
Interest in work	Voice and diction
Interest in people	General ability

What do you consider his strong points?

What are his chief limitations?

Other remarks (use other side of sheet if necessary).:

Library Service..... Signed.....

APPENDIX D
UNIVERSITY OF WASHINGTON
SCHOOL OF LIBRARIANSHIP
PERSONNEL EVALUATION SHEET

1. Name of student.....

2. Library.....

3. Period of Directed Field Work.....

4. Department assigned.....

5. Type of work assigned.....

6. Personal efficiency ratings: (A-excellent, B-very good, C-good, D-fair, F-unsatisfactory). Please rate where possible

..... Power of observation Leadership
..... Ability to follow instructions Attitude toward public
..... Accuracy Courtesy
..... Thoroughness Dignity
..... Speed (ability to expedite) Attitude toward work
..... Sense of responsibility Congeniality in staff
..... Dependability Neatness in appearance
..... Judgment Neatness in work
..... Imagination, resourcefulness Promptness
..... Adaptability Physical stamina

7. What do you consider :

- a. Strongest assets?
- b. Greatest limitations?

8. For what type of work is subject best qualified?

9. Does subject have physical or personality defects?

10. What degree of success in library service would you care to predict for the student in the light of this brief period of observation? (Please check.)

(Excellent) (Very good) (Good) (Average) (Doubtful)

GENERAL REMARKS :

Signature.....

Position.....

Address.....

Date.....

APPENDIX E

UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA SCHOOL OF LIBRARIANSHIP BERKELEY 4, CALIFORNIA

19

Dear Colleague,

In order to provide better placement service for employing librarians and to make our student records more useful evaluating tools, your co-operation is requested in rating the below-named graduate of this School who is now employed in your library. A duplicate copy of this sheet is enclosed for your files.

Sincerely yours,
J. PERIAM DANTON
Dean

(Employee's last name)	(First)	(Middle)					
		Excel-	Very	Good	Good	Fair	Poor
1. Demonstrated professional ability.....							
2. Personal capacity, apart from (1).....							
3. Competence in present assignment..... <small>(If there is a substantial discrepancy between your ratings of this employee on (1), (2), and (3), please state the reason, in your judgment, for this discrepancy.)</small>							
4. Personality.....							
5. Administrative capacity—actual.....							
6. Administrative capacity—potential.....							
7. Capacity for intellectual growth.....							
8. Health.....							
9. Present assignment (title, and department, e.g. cataloging, reference, etc.).....							
10. Present annual salary. \$.....							
11. Has employee's work indicated omissions in his professional education? If so, please specify.....							
12. Is there anything outstandingly <i>good</i> or especially <i>bad</i> about this employee?							
13. Special comment, if desired, on any of the foregoing, or on topics not covered above.							

Signature.....

Title.....

Institution.....

APPENDIX F

UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN DEPARTMENT OF LIBRARY SCIENCE PLACEMENT RECORD

..... 19

Family name	First given name	Middle name
Home address	Telephone no.....	
Ann Arbor address.....	Telephone no.....	

What type of library and kind of position do you prefer?
Indicate preference by number, as 1 : first choice, 2 : second
choice, etc.

TYPE OF LIBRARY

College
High School
Public
Special
University

KIND OF WORK

Administration
Cataloging
Children's room
Classification
Loan department
Order department
Readers' adviser
Reference.

Are you willing to accept a position without restrictions as to location or kind of work? If not, state limitations.

If you have preferences as to location, state them here.

At what date will you be ready to begin work?.....

Minimum salary you are willing to accept.....

APPENDIX G
UNIVERSITY OF WASHINGTON
PERSONNEL DATA SHEET

Name :
Present address :
Date of birth :
Education :

Experience :

Proficiency, Evaluation of :

Personality :

Date :

Robert L. GITLER, Director.

SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY

During the past quarter of a century about one thousand books, pamphlets and articles have been published in the general field of the librarian's education. Over 90 per cent of this writing has been in English; about one-tenth of the total appears in the following bibliography. With a single exception the titles included here do not antedate 1925; present-day concepts of librarianship, of the functions of libraries and of education for librarianship have developed and changed so markedly during the past 25 years that writing of more than a quarter of a century ago—and indeed much writing of even 10 or 20 years ago—is now useful only for historical purposes. An attempt has been made to include the most recent and important publications on each of the major aspects of education for librarianship; the most comprehensive work on a particular phase is not always of recent date but, even when not, it has been included. Representative non-English writings are included but, because of their paucity, some which are not of very recent date and not very comprehensive will be found.

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Paris, I. F. M. R. P. 1950
Imprimé en France